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ABSTRACT

This paper reviews the literature on the noneducational impacts of rural schools on their communities and provides an annotated bibliography of sources. Taken as a whole, the literature suggests that the school-community relationship is multifaceted. Community schools have positive economic impacts related to local employment, retail sales, and infrastructure; have positive social impacts related to social integration and collective community identity; function as an arena for local politics; provide a resource for community development through student projects and school-to-work programs; and offer a delivery point for health and social services, improving access to health care and other services. Further research is needed in the following areas: K-12 educational uses of advanced communication technologies, which may remedy problems of geographic isolation; the economic impact of consolidation on school districts; outcome evaluation of school-community partnerships; and outcome-based analysis of rural school-based health centers. The annotated bibliography has two sections containing 43 research papers and 68 advocacy and position papers. Entries were published 1938-98 (primarily in the 1980s and 1990s) and include journal articles, federal documents, conference papers, monographs, books, book chapters, research bulletins, and master's theses. (SV)

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What Difference do Local Schools Make? A Literature Review and Bibliography

Prepared for Annenberg Rural Challenge Policy Program

by

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What Difference do Local Schools Make?
A Literature Review and Bibliography

Introduction

We began our inquiry into the non-educational impact of schools on rural communities expecting to find that little had been written on the relationship between schools as institutions, on one hand, and their home communities, on the other. We supposed, instead, that studies would address only how education *per se* affects local well-being.

To our surprise, we found that sociologists, historians, educators, and economists have been writing about non-educational school impacts on communities for years. Taken as a whole, their work suggests the school-community relationship is multi-faceted. Schools have positive economic and social impacts, provide a resource for community development and offer a delivery point for social services.

Unfortunately, most of the literature only *suggests* and does not *document* these different kinds of impacts. In fact, few objective studies on the relationship between school and community have been done. Most articles and reports describe programmatic approaches and prescribe how rural schools *ought* to function in their communities. Still, some analytical research — both quantitative and qualitative — has been conducted and does, in fact, support the multi-faceted impacts noted above. This is the research on which we focus here, leaving the prescriptive work to guide us in recommending a future research agenda at the end of our report.

Pressure to consolidate schools motivates virtually all the research on how schools impact local communities.[1] That is because merging small, rural schools — with the expectation of improving educational opportunities while achieving greater efficiency — typically leaves some communities with expanded facilities and others with no facilities or sometimes only an elementary school. The questions naturally arise, "What happens to towns where consolidation results in closing a local school? Do they lose economic vitality? Community cohesiveness? Or perhaps, political involvement?"

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[1]In our search for evidence on how schools impact communities, we reviewed some of the vast literature on school consolidation. Most of what we found did not address the specific questions we were trying to answer, and therefore is not discussed here. Readers interested in the history, rationale for, and costs and benefits of consolidation may want to begin with Reynolds (1995), De Young (1987), DeYoung and Boyd (1986), Strang (1987), Fuller (1982), Monk and Haller (1986), Sher and Tompkins (1977), Rosenfeld and Sher (1977), Streifel, Holman and Foldesy (1992), White and Tweeten (1973), Holland, Baritelle and White (1976), Webb (1979), and the Falcon Beach School Closure Review (1987).

As DeYoung (1987) points out in his review of rural education research, several classic community studies conducted in the 1930s, '40s, and '50s examined the centrality of local schools in the lives of small communities. These studies include the now-famous *The Social Life of a Modern Community* (Warner and Lunt, 1941) and *Small Town in Mass Society* (Vidich and Bensman, 1958). A passage from the latter illustrates the kind of general findings produced by this body of sociological research:

> A budget of a quarter of a million dollars makes the school a major "industry" of the village, a major purchaser of goods and services and the source of a substantial section of purchasing power. Every family with school age children has daily contact with it for nine and one-half months of the year. School buses cover the township roads twice a day. Most of the major social, cultural and athletic events of the community take place within its halls (p. 171).

The devil, however, is in the details. Precisely how large of an "industry" does the school represent? To what extent does the school function as a social center for small communities? And what kind of non-educational services might schools provide? In the hope of beginning to answer these questions, we offer the following review of literature focused on the non-educational impact of schools on rural communities.

Economic Impacts

We found only three studies that examined the economic effects of schools on rural communities. Two were explicitly, and one implicitly, motivated by concerns about what happens when towns lose their schools.

Sederberg (1987) studied the secondary economic impacts of school districts in six rural Minnesota counties that differed in terms of their economic base. While he focused on school districts rather than individual schools, his study is useful in that it identifies and measures many different kinds of economic impacts. The counties he selected had boundaries that were roughly the same as school district boundaries, thus simplifying his analysis of economic impacts. Given that so few studies have addressed the economic role of schools in any objective way, and that Sederberg's study could easily be replicated in other parts of the country, it is worth noting several of his specific findings:

- School district payroll ranged from 4-9 percent of total county payroll.

- Total take-home pay from school district jobs ranged from 5-10 percent of the counties' retail sales.
- School district expenditures ranged from 1-3 percent of total retail sales.
- People employed by the school district ranged from 1-5 percent of all employed people in the counties.

In addition to looking at secondary data, Sederberg interviewed bankers and realtors about their perceptions of the school districts' economic role. Generally, bankers viewed the districts and their employees as adding to the capital available for making loans, as sponsoring social activities that draw people into town and into retail stores, and contributing to local payrolls (both directly and indirectly). Realtors generally saw the schools as important to maintaining residential and commercial property values (although this was not true in communities with tourism and retirement economies). While Sederberg acknowledged the educational value of larger school districts, he concluded that the secondary economic impacts of consolidating school districts should not be overlooked.

In their study of an agricultural town in Nevada, Petkovich and Ching (1977) examined changes in retail sales and total labor supply that could be attributed to closing the local high school in 1975. Based on an input-output model constructed with survey data, they estimated that closing the high school would result in an eight percent decrease in retail sales (primarily due to lower government sector expenditures and high school students' spending) and a six percent decrease in labor supply (due to high school students who could no longer keep their local school-year jobs).

Dreier (1982b) studied the availability of services in six Iowa towns that lost their high schools between 1960 and 1980. The towns' total population increased by 14 percent during the study period and the availability of retail services generally held constant or decreased only slightly. Infrastructure, such as sewage and telephone service, improved in all six communities. It is possible to conclude from this study that the loss of a high school had no negative impact on non-educational services. However, given Dreier's small sample size and questionable methodology, one can reasonably doubt whether his conclusion would hold up under other circumstances.

Social Impacts

The social impacts of schools on rural communities have been explored through sociological case studies. Bryant and Grady (1990) provide a useful framework for understanding the approach taken by analysts with a social focus. In stable rural communities, they argue, three social forces are at work: centripetalism, inclusiveness, and social distinction. Using a case study of Douglas, Nebraska, they explore how these three forces play out through the local school, and are at variance with the movement to consolidate schools in one regional center.

The principle of *centripetalism*, as Bryant and Grady describe it, is the "tendency of various social and economic forces to centralize" (p. 21). Schools have the effect of unifying communities by bringing students together for education, but more generally, bringing many community residents together in one place for social activities. "The removal of the school [due to consolidation] means it can no longer add to the forces of centripetalism. The consolidated school may have a regional impact. But its role in the particular community will be diminished" (p. 25).

It is conventional wisdom that rural schools serve the function of community or cultural centers, certainly, the kind of centripetal role that Bryant and Grady wrote about. Indeed, we think of small town schools as places everyone can go to watch a play or a game, attend a dance, or hold political debates. This role is so obvious that few analysts have actually studied the void that remains when a school closes and its sponsored activities disappear. An exception is Petkovich and Ching (1977) who found that the local high school in Lund, Nevada sponsored 17 out of 45 community activities. "Although high school sponsored activities such as the FHA Halloween Costume Ball and the FFA Thanksgiving Carnival and Dance were [still] held with the school closed, it is difficult to see how most high school activities (especially sports) could be replaced" (p. 7).

The principle of *inclusiveness*, according to Bryant and Grady, unites people and forms the basis for "getting together" (p. 23):

> The importance of the high school in Douglas cannot be underscored enough. Social activities, particularly athletics, provide an opportunity for a community event that all community members can (and do) attend. A girls' high school volleyball game at the state tournament draws virtually all of the inhabitants of Douglas . . . Only through various school functions can all residents find access to community "associational life" (p. 24).

Finally, the principle of *social distinction* enables small town residents to distinguish their community from others (p.24). And no institution promotes a distinctive community identity more powerfully than the school. According to Reynolds (1995), the school institutionalizes a sense of collective identity. As such, "Parents do not regard the school merely as a place to send their children to learn how to read, but as 'our' school" (Alford, 1960, p. 352).

Based on his case study of a California community, Alford describes how schools "integrate" or bind together small communities, thus providing a sense of identity:

> The contacts of students within the school increase family and neighborhood contacts, and bolster whatever community integration exists based on economic, political or religious institutions, or on common values. These are ways in which the existence of a school in a small community encourages and shapes the forms of social interaction which become stable and valued by community members (p 358).

Like the other kinds of school impacts on community, these stabilizing and positive social effects are not often recognized until the local institution is threatened with consolidation. As Peshkin (1978) notes in his study of Mansfield, Illinois:

> [T]here is more to schooling than meets the eyes of teachers, legislators, and academics who conceptualize purposes for schooling not fully shared by those who constitute a community. There is a school's noneducative, community-maintenance function, which usually becomes apparent to its support group only when it is threatened (p. 208).

The School as an Arena for Local Politics

Research has shown conclusively that school consolidation has shifted control of schools from local citizens to state administrators. Numerous studies have documented the changes in legislation and regulation that have codified this transfer of power, for example, Rosenfeld (1977) in Vermont, DeYoung and Boyd (1986) in Kentucky, and Reynolds (1995) in Iowa. Clearly, the direct effect of a centralized decision-making structure has been to divest local communities of oversight on matters such as curriculum, location of schools, and teacher qualifications.

DeYoung and Boyd assert that in Kentucky, consolidation was pursued so as to model rural schools after urban schools, even though the reasons for consolidating urban schools had little or no applicability in rural areas. As schools were consolidated in Kentucky, the trust model of local citizens making education decisions and maintaining schools was pushed aside in favor of

professional administrators and centralized state control. The school itself had been a locally controlled political institution. However, after consolidation and "the adoption of management techniques as indicators of progress for the county's schools" (p. 29), the school was lost as a locally controlled community institution. "The power of educational professionals has increased while citizen control of the day-to-day operation of public education has all but disappeared" (p. 37).

It is reasonable to expect indirect political effects due to the upward shift in power and closing of local schools described by these analysts. Disenfranchisement with respect to schools, one could argue, might lead to apathy. For example, voter turnout for school bond elections might be lower. Similarly, and given the importance of schools as cultural centers and sources of community identity, voters might be more apathetic about elections in general after their school closed its doors. Surprisingly, however, we did not find any analysis of these issues. The role of the school as an arena for local politics remains an open question.

Schools as a Resource for Community Development

In the last decade, rural advocates have begun focusing on the role of schools in rural community development.[2] Miller (1995) argued that social capital theory as applied to rural communities by Flora and Flora (1993) provides a framework for understanding the community development function of local schools. Along the same lines, Kretzman and McKnight (1993) describe schools as an underutilized community development resource.

> As schools have become more professionalized and centralized, they have tended to distance themselves from their local communities. The vital links between experience, work, and education have been weakened. As a result, public and private schools in many urban and rural communities have lost their power as a valuable community resource. And many economically distressed towns, communities, and neighborhoods have begun to struggle toward economic revitalization without the valuable contributions of the local schools (p. 209).

[2]Many rural advocates have also focused on the role of schools in rural *economic* development. Examples include Miller and Hahn (1997); Sher (1977); and Spears (1990). This economic development role plays out in two ways, first, by teaching students marketable workplace skills, and second, by promoting school-based enterprises or school-business partnerships. Both of these functions are essentially educational, and further, they can be assumed either by a local or larger, consolidated school. For these reasons, the literature on how rural schools promote economic development is not discussed in this report.

Miller went on to discuss several northwestern towns that have initiated projects to strengthen school-community partnerships, thereby building from the school as a community development asset as Kretzman and McKnight have advocated. Some of these projects emphasize school-to-work programs and others use a "community-based curriculum" to involve students in (for example) recreation planning, tourism and other economic development activities, and recycling. Miller concluded,

> . . . the community benefits [from such partnerships] in multiple ways . . Local businesses tap into a reliable employment pool. Active student involvement with local residents provides meaningful opportunities for adults to teach and return something to the community. Students also provide community service and development help to local groups and organizations needing assistance in completing projects (p. 165).

While the case study research cited by Miller, as well as by Miller and Hahn (1997), is both encouraging and thought provoking, it is difficult to know what the projects' tangible outcomes are, and impossible to extricate the schools' role from this multi-dimensional relationship between youth, school, and community. As is the case with other research on social capital, hard evidence of "success" is difficult to find in work by Miller and other, more advocacy-oriented writers.[3] In the end, we are left with a promising community development strategy but little certainty that schools are having a measurable impact on rural community well-being.

Schools as Delivery Points for Health Services

One very tangible, non-educational function of rural schools is documented in literature that has no "ax to grind" in the consolidation debate. That function is the provision of health services by school-based health centers (SBHCs). These vary in terms of what services are offered, but typically provide some combination of comprehensive primary care, mental health services, family planning and/or health education (Davis, *et al* 1989). Some SBHCs serve a school's student population exclusively, while others serve the community at large. The first documented SBHC opened in 1970 (Gullotta and Noyes, 1995). Including both urban and rural sites, there were 31 centers around the U.S. by 1984, and about 500 by 1992.

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[3]See, for example, "Year one: An evaluation of school-based development corporations in five rural Arkansas towns" (1982); Gjelten (1982a and 1982b); Israel *et al* (1993); and Smith & Fleming-Clower (1986).

The SBHC concept is well-suited to rural areas, where schools are often the most centrally located facilities. Further, SBHCs meet an important need in sparsely populated and remote areas where access to health care tends to be relatively restricted. A national review of adolescent health services found that about half of rural programs are delivered through schools (*Comprehensive Adolescent Health Services in the U.S.*, 1992).

Some SBHCs are community-based and were set up by local residents, while others have been initiated from the top down. For example, in 1990, the Kentucky state legislature mandated that when at least 20 percent of local students are eligible for free meals, family resource centers should be established near elementary schools and youth services centers established near secondary schools (Doktor and Poertner, 1996).

The success of SBHCs as a means of health care delivery in rural areas has been mixed. While Terwilliger (1994) found a 98 percent use rate at an SBHC serving 4-year olds in rural Pennsylvania, other researchers have found lower levels of acceptance and use by the target population. For example, in their recent needs assessment survey in rural Maryland, Rickert, *et al* (1997) found that only about seven percent of adolescent students were willing to switch from their regular source of care to a school-based clinic. A somewhat higher proportion said they would consider using the SBHC for selected services, including routine, acute medical, and reproductive health care. Students with lower incomes and without a regular health care provider were more likely than others to consider using an SBHC as their primary care source. A community-based, student-centered model was used in northern New Mexico to establish four SBHCs intended to serve native American adolescents (Davis *et al*, 1989). Preliminary evaluations indicated that 53 — 78 percent of the high school population (about evenly split between boys and girls) in the various communities were using the centers.

Feldman, Bentley and Oler (1988) conducted the only study we found that evaluated the effects of a program on the health outcomes of the target population. They found that children receiving dental care in a school-based center had no marked difference in dental health, though they received fewer treatments and had less general knowledge about preventive dental care than the control group assigned to a community-based clinic.

Farie *et al* (1986) provide an example of creative strategies for funding and implementing rural SBHCs. With the support of their district administrators, psychologists from three rural New York school districts created a consortium to start a school-based mental health project designed to screen and treat children with behavior problems. By pooling resources for training, salaries, and on-going program evaluation, the school districts were able to provide services they couldn't have offered individually.

School-based health services intended to reach an entire rural community are less common, but do exist. For example, a school-based health education program targeting smoking, diet and exercise habits was used in two rural New York counties (Barthold, *et al*, 1993). While students were the primary targets of school presentations, community links were also made by coordinating events such as a smoke-free week, community health fairs and public health screenings for cardiovascular risk factors. Children and community groups were also given flyers on health habits to take home or reproduce in newsletters. A program evaluation estimated that 18 percent of the population in the two counties participated in the health education campaign. Unfortunately, as is the case with most studies reviewed here, the impact of the New York program on health-related behavior was not studied.

Implications for Further Research

Almost 40 years ago, Robert Alford wrote that schools are not only instruments of the national society, educating its citizens, but also important social institutions in local communities (1960). Both functions are vitally important, and no amount of research will ever conclusively prove that one should take precedence over the other, especially in the eyes of people who have chosen to live in a small community.

We venture to say that the careful and well-meaning analysis discussed here has had little more impact than a whisper in the hurricane of arguments over consolidation. The key economic and political questions have not been touched in any comprehensive way. And though the social function served by schools, beyond whatever they do in terms of education, is well argued, one suspects that consolidation advocates have hardly been swayed.

Is there, then, any legitimate and productive role for researchers? Can they help society as a whole and at the same time assist places like Douglas, Nebraska and Lund, Nevada? Several efforts to define a useful research agenda for rural education issues have addressed both these objectives. (See, for example, Helge (1985a and 1985b); "An agenda for research and development on rural education" (1991), and Mulkey (1993).) Here, we discuss research needs following directly from the substance of our literature review, and note where our agenda overlaps with what others have proposed.

First, researchers should critically examine K-12 educational uses of advanced communications technologies. The dream is that such technologies will efficiently provide high-quality education in small towns. As Parker (1998) argued at a workshop organized by TVA Rural Studies:

> Distance learning networks may be an ideal way for rural schools to pool their resources and to draw on outside talents not available locally, in order to provide their students with the best education available anywhere. It is hard to offer advanced placement courses or a wide variety of math, science and foreign language courses in small rural schools. With appropriate distance learning networks, these options are all possible (p. 100).

And according to Reynolds (1995):

> Advances in [telecommunications technologies] have the capability of robbing the grand debate over consolidation of much of its traditional spatial logic. Schools could indeed be almost everywhere there is a port on the fiber-optic "information highway" that can be linked directly to wherever "students" might need or want to be (p. 476).

One shouldn't think for a minute that states and school districts will wait for more research before spending money on networking, nor that consolidation advocates will be mute until the benefits from communications technologies are better understood. Nevertheless, it is important to monitor and evaluate how rural schools are using these technologies. How many have access to communications technologies? For what purposes are they using the technologies? And most important, what are the educational *and* economic costs and benefits? We suspect that parts of this analysis are already under way as schools race to get on the information highway. Hence, the first step in a research effort focused on education and communications technologies is to inventory who is already examining the key questions, and the next step is to begin filling the gaps in what we need to know.

Second, any rural advocate who wishes to engage in the perennial debate about consolidation must be knowledgeable about past research on costs and benefits, again, both educational *and* economic. In our search for literature on the non-educational impacts of rural schools, we came across numerous studies of consolidation. While these studies have clearly not resolved anything, one can hardly argue against consolidation without knowing how it affects children scholastically nor how it changes the costs of education administration. Certainly, these two issues will continue to dominate the debate and feed powerful arguments either for or against school re-organization. Therefore, a literature review summarizing what is known about the educational impacts of local schools is probably warranted, as is a review of research on the economic impact of consolidation on school districts.

It's possible a literature review would show that more research on these topics is still needed. For example, Reynolds (1995) argues that we need simple, student-outcome data from before and after consolidation, and from communities where the school has remained local and autonomous.

Streifel *et al* (1992) argue that more study is needed on costs of transporting children to consolidated schools and of maintaining consolidated facilities, as well as on the secondary economic impacts of local schools (along the lines of the economic impacts studies reviewed here). Only after looking at existing research results can we say whether further study of these questions is warranted.

Third, we believe that objective outcome evaluations of school-community partnerships would be valuable. Advocates have done a good job documenting what kind of partnerships have been formed, yet we know little about the impacts. (See, for example, Delargy *et al*, 1992). Before funding and encouraging these increasingly prevalent programs, it is important to know whether they strengthen communities either economically or socially, and whether they benefit students. One option is to track a sample of students who have and have not participated in these partnerships to learn how their futures might differ.

Finally, outcome-based analysis of rural SBHCs is needed to understand whether locating health services in schools is, indeed, an effective strategy for improving access to health care for some rural people. Certainly, the logic of this strategy is appealing since it offers a way to make additional use of school facilities and to build on existing, regular contacts between adults and children. Also, since schools are likely to be among the facilities with the best access to telecommunications in remote communities, they are logical sites for exploiting the potential of new communications technologies for long-distance consultations. Still, how to improve rural health care is its own research topic and any studies of SBHCs should probably be conducted in conjunction with evaluating other strategies for improving health care access such as recruiting and retaining physicians and other health professionals.

In each of these four areas, nationally comparable data is essential. We are struck by how much of the literature we reviewed is based on case study methods. Given how widely the economic and social fortunes of rural places vary, we believe it is time to study *across* communities rather than in one at a time. This is especially true for research on how rural towns are using communications technologies for educational purposes. Well-to-do communities that are already "wired" and knowledgeable about telecommunications are more likely to exploit the new technologies much faster than remote and poorer towns where consolidation remains a threat. By using research methods that yield more generalizable results, we can learn how the role of schools in small towns varies depending on economic, social, and geographic characteristics.

Bibliography I: Research-Based Publications

____. An agenda for research and development on rural education. (1991). (Report No. ERIC ED 331-657).
Addressing the need for research on rural schools, the Federal Interagency Committee on Education (FICE), Subcommittee on Rural Education, identified six priority topics representing the most compelling concerns of rural education. This pamphlet serves as a stimulus for researchers to study rural education issues and share their findings with the U.S. Department of Education's Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC). The six priority topics are: (1) the effectiveness of rural schools including defining the factors that describe and affect the rural community, such as geographic isolation, economy of scale, and variability in culture, economy, and social environment; (2) curricular provisions in rural schools such as individualized instruction, design and implementation, cooperation with private sector development, access, and adult literacy improvement; (3) school and community partnerships; (4) human resources for rural schools focusing on recruitment, retention, professional development, administration, and supervision; (5) the use of technology in rural schools; and (6) financial support and governance for rural schools. Sample research questions are provided for each topic. Addresses for submitting comments or research and for further information are also included.

____. Comprehensive Adolescent Health Services in the United States, 1990. (1992). (Report No. ERIC ED 397-196).
Various model programs for comprehensive health service delivery to adolescents have been proposed and implemented, but few of these programs have been evaluated systematically. This monograph identifies 664 programs that provide comprehensive or integrated services and reports the results of a survey completed by 435 programs. Two-thirds of all such programs are in urban communities; half of all rural programs are school-based. Programs can be grouped into the following models: (1) school-based or school-linked programs (45%); (2) health center-based programs (9%); (3) hospital-based programs (22%); (4) health department-based programs (8%); (5) community-center-based (11%); and (6) other models (5%). Nearly two-thirds require parental consent for the adolescent to receive services, with school-based programs the most likely to require parental consent. In reality, few programs provided comprehensive care such as drug and alcohol treatment or recreation programs. Many more service programs and systematic attempts to provide services are needed if adolescents are to have real access to comprehensive health care.

____. Falcon Beach school closure review. (1987). (Report No. ERIC ED 303-291).
Falcon Beach School is a small school experiencing declining school enrollment and increasing operational costs. In February, 1987, Falcon Beach School was announced as a candidate for closure. The Planning and Research Branch of Manitoba Education conducted an economic and social analysis of the school operations. This research report provides results of the analysis of these factors and examines the potential impacts associated with alternate methods of education delivery. A profile of the Falcon/West

Hawk community and its relationship and commitment to the Falcon Beach School is presented. The concerns of parents, residents, businesses, employing government agencies, and teachers are listed as data considered in the closure study. Six options are given as alternate education plans for this community with accompanying projected costs. The major conclusions are: (1) enrollment is expected to increase; (2) costs associated with providing education to the Falcon/West Hawk students are projected to increase; (3) by 1991, it will have cost the Department more to have closed the school to and have transported students to neighboring schools than it would to have left the school open; (4) school closure will potentially negatively impact the community; and (5) school closure would result in the Falcon/West Hawk elementary students having to undertake a 1.5-hour bus ride to another school. Suggestions for increasing efficiency of the school are given if the school is to remain open. Contains 22 references.

____. Year one: An evaluation of school-based development corporations in five rural Arkansas towns. (1982). (Report No. ERIC ED 264-999)
Rural school districts in five Arkansas towns set up school-based development corporations (SBDCs) to provide vocational and career training relevant to the needs of rural high school students and the community and to improve the economic and social welfare of the community as a whole. Each SBDC owned and operated businesses using student labor supervised by school faculty, generated income-producing opportunities, coordinated local development efforts, trained young people in marketable skills, promoted development of managerial and entrepreneurial skills, and stimulated needed community social services. The SBDCs described in the study include newspapers, a roller skating rink, a day care center, a temporary employment service, a photo lab, a movie theater, and a public beach. Narrative descriptions of each project relate successes and failures, community and participant attitudes, and results. Evaluation reports contain socioeconomic and educational objectives, outcomes, financial statements, and summary evaluations. A first year evaluation report includes goals, objectives/outcomes, a financial statement, and a comments section which notes that each community now has a real "laundry list" of potential activities for year two of the project.

Alford, R. (1960). School district reorganization and community integration. Harvard Educational Review, 30(4), pp. 350-371. Fall.
A school is both an organ of the national society, educating its citizens, and also an important social institution in its local community. The question of reorganization of school districts exposes the conflict between these functions of a school: to unify adjacent districts in the interests of national educational efficiency may threaten local autonomy and self-esteem. In this article, the problem is analyzed generally, and exemplified by the case of Calaveras County, California. Mr. Alford shows that the conflict of interests is related to the whole issue of centralization in a modern democratic society.

Barthold, J., Pearson, J., Ellsworth, A., Mason, C., Hohensee, T., McLaud, B., & Lewis, C. (1993). A cardiovascular health education program for rural schools. J School Health, 63(7), 298-301.
Public understanding of cardiovascular disease (CVD) risk factors and primary prevention has increased, due in part to community prevention efforts. However, many segments of

society are difficult to reach. Such groups still need public education to acquire the knowledge that can lead to behavior change. Community intervention programs in rural areas face the challenge of disseminating health information to widely scattered populations isolated by difficult terrain and weather, and restricted by the sparsity of channels for mass communication. School health promotion programs, because of the special role schools play in rural communities, can help reach rural populations. During a five-year period, the Otsego-Schoharie Healthy Heart Program, a state-funded community intervention program, provided presentations to 18% of the combined total population of two rural counties through its school-based component. It also helped promote other program initiatives by establishing linkages in the community. Schools provide an effective channel for health promotion efforts to reach rural populations.

Bryant, M. T., & Grady, M. L. (1990). Community factors threatening rural school district stability. Research in Rural Education, 6(3), 21-26.
This paper presents three principles of community that, when compromised, appear to contribute to school district instability. One Nebraska school district is examined to test the hypothesis. The principles are: (1) centripetalism, or the centralization of economic and social organizations; (2) inclusiveness, or the idea that everyone is needed to make a place succeed; and (3) distinctiveness, or the things that make a community unique and instill pride in local residents. Discusses the importance of these principles to rural school districts and their place in rural economic development strategy.

Davis, S. M., Hunt, K., & Kitzes, J. M. (1989). Improving the health of Indian teenagers: A demonstration program in rural New Mexico. Public Health Reports, 104(3), 271-8.
The health status of Indian teenagers in the United States is below that of the general population, exacerbated in rural areas by distance, isolation, and lack of appropriate services. A public health demonstration project in rural New Mexico (a) established a single location where adolescents can receive multiple, integrated health care services free of charge; (b) set up the initial program of services at a rural school; (c) established links with existing agencies; and (d) incorporated community action toward creating change. The project began as a joint effort of three communities, the University of New Mexico (UNM), and the Albuquerque Area Indian Health Service (IHS) of the Public Health Service; a secondary level public school soon became a participant. The project is being replicated in two other communities that have formed separate partnerships with UNM and the area IHS; also the New Mexico Health and Environment Department has joined the effort in one community. Preliminary data suggest that the services are being used by a majority of the target population, with the proportions of boys and girls about equal.

DeYoung, A. J. (1987). The status of American rural education research: An integrated review and commentary. Review of Educational Research, 57(2), 123-148.
The history of American education has been primarily an urban history. School reform movements of the mid-19th century were targeted at the particular porblems brought on by the Industrial Revolution. Early 20th-century school administrators, and later progressive educators, defined the majority of America's educational problems in terms of school-based occupational and community living skills that city dwellers needed in modern America. Finally, school reforms of the 1950s-80s have been targeted primarily at such

concerns as the plight of minorities in inner cities, national defense needs, and now occupational skills necessary to compete internationally. Such reforms have had the net effect of continuing the century-long bias of much educational policy, scholarship, and research toward urban-based issues and concerns. On the other hand, a variety of research and policy initiatives have emerged in rural America, typically sponsored by state departments of education in primarily rural regions of the country and by numerous grass-roots organizations. Similarly, there has begun to emerge an interesting yet diverse literature on issues and problems in rural education. Themes such as education for economic development, problems with achieving educational equity in rural America, issues in appropriate school size, the role of the school in community life, problems with the training and rewarding of professional staff in rural schools, and so forth have begun to draw serious attention from a new wave of rural education researchers. The purpose of the following literature review is to elaborate on historical and contemporary reasons why scholarship on rural education has been relatively underdeveloped in this country, to briefly survey current initiatives in emerging rural education scholarship, and to speculate on the possibilities and dilemmas this field faces in its future evolution

DeYoung, A. J., & Boyd, T. (1986). Urban school reforms for a rural district: A case study of school/community relations in Jackson County, Kentucky, 1899-1986. Journal of Thought, 21(4), 25-42.
An examination of the debate over whether school reform since the mid-nineteenth century was controlled primarily by parent groups, private industry, or professional educators. Focus is on school reform measures as championed & articulated by professional educators at the district & state level in Jackson County, Ky, between 1899 & 1986. There was a widespread shift from local control to board and education dept. control at state level, modeled after urban school reform. A 1983 report recorded low student achievement: 28.6 % county's adults completed high school (3rd lowest in nation), < 40% went beyoned 8th grade, test scores ranked 167th out of 183 Kentucky distrricts. This case study establishes the significance of professional educators in altering local citizen control over school policy in Jackson County and argues that urban school structure is not suited to rural areas.

Doktor, J. E., & Poertner, J. (1996). Kentucky's family resource centers: A community-based, school-linked services model. Remedial and Special Education, 17(5), 293-302.
Joining together in a school-linked services movement in KY, educators & social workers have created family resource centers at elementary schools where 20+% of the student body are eligible for free school meals. Paper focuses on the components of a successful program based on the Kentucky experience. Lessons learned include issues of leadership, environment and early implementation success, components of organizational capacity, macro-micro relationships, and new organizational structures. Unresolved policy issues include universal access; the difference between services, needs, and results; and the importance of system maturation.

Dreier, W. H. (1982a). The joining of school districts in Iowa since 1966 or fifteen years of school combination without state compulsion. (Report No. ERIC ED 219-218).
Examines the factors influencing Iowa school district consolidations from 1966-1981

when no reorganizations or consolidations were mandated by state policy. A lobbying group called People United for Rural Education has been one of the most significant factors in allowing local school districts and their citizens to decide about reorganization locally. The 28 local education agencies (LEAs) which joined in the last 15 years came from 15 counties and 19 Area Education Agencies. School districts that combined in the "early" 1966-76 period gained population over 1960-1980; districts that combined in "late" 1977-81 lost population over same period. All of the districts in the study had been reorganized once previously and were less than 10 miles from one another. Among the many pressures which will continue to bring about additional combinations in the next 5 years are declining birthrate, inflation, limited curricular and other learning experiences and parental attitudes.

Dreier, W. H. (1982b). What happens when the high school leaves the community? (Report No. ERIC ED 219-217). Paper presented at the Annual National Conference of People United for Rural Education, Des Moines, Iowa, Feb. 5-6, 1982.
Eleven Iowa towns in 11 counties and 11 Area Education Agencies (AWAs), having both elementary and high schools in 1960, were chosen via a rural-urban continuum to ascertain evidence of creativity in providing community services after losing the high school between 1960 and 1980. The study compared: community services in 1955-56 and 1980-81 (a 24-item check list of services sent to 11 town clerks yielded 6 responses), number of city offices and officials in the 11 towns in 1974-75 and 1980-81; population, distance to high school, and rural-urban score for the 11 towns in 1960 and 1980; 1981 availability of services in the 6 towns and in 12 towns with high schools and similar populations. Findings indicated: all 11 towns without high schools lost services, but added some between 1955 and 1980, most towns added service personnel; the 12 towns with high schools often reported 7 of 11 services; the 6 towns were more rural between 1960 and 1980; and population in all towns increased between 1960 and 1980. The 11 towns were different in location, community, services, and city personnel. It was recommended that county, state, and federal governments recognize these differences and allow for creativity within each community.

Farie, A. M., Cowen, E. L., & Smith, M. (1986). The development and implementation of a rural consortium program to provide early, preventive school mental health services. Community Ment Health J, 22(2), 94-103.
This article describes the development and implementation of a rural consortium of school-based programs for early detection and prevention of maladjustment. The program expanded considerably the reach of early services to young children. It also stimulated communication, interaction and support among professionals in participating districts. Program evaluation data provided evidence of its efficacy. Extensions of the consortium model to other rural districts are reported and the utility of the approach for addressing the mental health problems of children in under-resourced rural school districts is considered.

Feldman, C. A., Bentley, J. M., & Oler, J. (1988). The rural dental health program: Long-term impact of two dental delivery systems on children's oral health. J Public Health Dent, 48(4), 201-7.

This paper addresses the long-term effect of two dental delivery systems established during the Rural Dental Health Program (RDHP) in 1975. At that time 725 children in grades K-2 were assigned randomly to an enriched dental health education program or regular health education program and to a SCHOOL- or COMMUNITY-based dental delivery system. Seven years after funding for RDHP ended, children originally assigned to the COMMUNITY group utilized more professional services and showed a higher level of dental knowledge than children assigned to the SCHOOL group. In addition, COMMUNITY-based children had, on average, twice as many sealed teeth. While the follow-up study did not reveal any statistically significant difference in the clinical oral health indices (DMFS, gingival index, calculus index, plaque index, periodontal probing depth, and orthodontic treatment priority index) the COMMUNITY-based children's higher level of professional dental service utilization, greater number of sealed teeth, and increased dental knowledge should lead to a higher level of oral health in the long run.

Flora, C., & Flora, J. (1993). Entrepreneurial social infrastructure: A necessary social ingredient. The Annals of the American Academy, 529, 48-58.

Gjelten, T. (1982a). Gary, Texas: The Rise of *Loblolly*. In P. M. Nachtigal (Ed.), Rural Education: In Search of a Better Way (pp. 227-246). Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc.
Account of a small school social studies teacher implementing a school-produced, local history magazine modeled after the Foxfire project. A significant difference is that the Gary, Texas school-based magazine was financially self-sufficient, raising almost all operating expenses through advertising. The project enjoyed wide community support and won official school support by becoming an elective class.

Gjelten, T. (1982b). Staples, Minnesota: Improving the Schools to Save the Town. In P. M. Nachtigal (Ed.), Rural Education: In Search of a Better Way (pp. 247-265). Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc.
A 20-year summary of a Minnesota town's development efforts. After layoffs at the railroad, the community's largest employer, Staples developed its schools to attract new employers and expanded vocational education programs as part of an economic survival strategy. Examples of school-community cooperation included establishing a community development corporation to help businesses locate in Staples that could use workers with skills learned at the vocational program. Vocational education students participated in hands-on public works projects that the community wouldn't have been able to afford otherwise. Program success attributed to community cooperation and support and school leadership.

Gullotta, T. P., & Noyes, L. (1995). The changing paradigm of community health: The role of school-based health centers. Adolescence, 30(117), 107-115.

Examines the health care needs of adolescents, barriers that keep them from receiving services, & the role of school-based health care services in meeting these needs. The health risk factors adolescents face can be helped by preventive intervention. School-based health centers can promote health by being accessible, offering integrated service delivery, and encouraging responsibility for positive health behavior. Staff serve basic primary care

needs as well as establish ongoing relationships with students in the effort to help create a more comfortable climate for youths to receive help & guidance to influence their lifestyles.

Helge, D. (1985a). Establishing an empirically determined national rural education research agenda. (Report No. ED 261-824).
Rural schools, which comprise 67% of the nation's school systems, experience distinct educational environments and have unique strengths and weaknesses. Quality research to assess the effectiveness of rural education has been hampered by inconsistently applied definitions of "rural" and inadequate data to compare rural and urban districts. A study conducted in 1984 by the National Rural Education Research Consortium was the first comprehensive national effort to derive an empirical data base for rural education research priorities. This synthesis of the larger study reviews methodology, lists the nine resulting research priority clusters and the questions related to each cluster, and outlines implications for federal government, state agencies, higher education institutions, rural schools and students, and data dissemination. The nine rank-ordered research clusters are listed as rural school effectiveness, governance and finance, staff training needs (technology as a resource), teaching styles and incentives, field-based personnel preparation, preservice preparation, personnel recruitment and retention, school-community interaction, and rural versus non-rural factors.

Helge, D. et al. (1985b). Establishing a national rural education research agenda via empirical data. (Report No. ED 256-530).
Begun in June 1984, the national study utilized questionnaires from 461 rural education researchers and practitioners to provide the first empirical data for prioritization of rural education research needs. Since conducting and supporting rural education research are clearly federal functions, the study was prepared for dissemination to federal agencies and elected officials and designed to focus on activating the research agenda and acting on its implications. Respondents rated 46 research questions and prioritized 13 themes. Nine research clusters were thus identified and rank ordered: rural school effectiveness, governance and finance, staff training needs (technology as a resource), teaching styles and incentives, field-based personnel preparation, preservice preparation, personnel recruitment and retention, school- community interaction, and rural versus non-rural factors. Rural practitioners and researchers were in agreement in prioritizing the importance of the clusters. Twelve recommendations/ implications are given that should be addressed by the federal government in support of efforts related to the prioritized clusters. Nineteen tables provide information on ranking of questions within clusters by "importance to the field" and "personal interest"; respondents' positions, institutions, and general/special education orientation; number of respondents by federal region and general/special education orientation; detailed information about rankings; and regional differences by clusters. The rural education research questionnaire is appended. Numerous tables and the survey instrument are included.

Holland, D., Baritelle, J., & White, G. (1976). School consolidation in sparsely populated rural areas: A case study. Educational Administration Quarterly, 12(1), 67-69.
The objective of this study was to investigate the relationship between internal schooling

economies and transportation diseconomies with regard to consolidation of rural schools. The consolidation question was conceptualized as a programming problem in which the objective was to minimize the sum of schooling and transportation costs. Both linear and separable programming models were used. Model solutions indicated that some consolidation of schools in the study area would minimize costs, but total cost savings were relatively small.

Israel, G. D., Coleman, D. L., & Ilvento, T. W. (1993). Student involvement in community needs assessment. Journal of the Community Development Society, 24(2), 249-271.
Although leadership is recognized as a devleopmental process, few communities plan to build the foundation for their young people to develop into involved citizens and leaders. Young adults need to increase their understanding of and commitment to their community and to become empowered to work toward solving local problems. Our approach was to link community service learning in the schools with community development. Specifically, high school students and teachers were recruited to assist with conducting a community needs assessment survey. We found that the students were able to help conduct a sophisticated needs assessment and able to do it right. The evidence also supports the view that students benefitted from their involvement in the project. Most students learned more about their community and about the needs assessment process. Some students also indicated that they were interested in continuing their involvement in community affairs, but the increase in feelings of empowerment among the students appeared to be limited

Kretzman, J., & McKnight, J. (1993). Building Communities from the Inside Out: A Path Toward Finding and Mobilizing a Community's Assets. Chicago: Assisting Christians to Act Publications.

Miller, B. A. (1995). The Role of Rural Schools in Community Development: Policy Issues and Implications. Journal of Research in Rural Education, 11(3), 163-72.
Explores issues related to expanding the roles of rural schools and youth in community development; summarizes literature related to community development and social capital; reports on how three rural West communities built linkages between the school and community; reports on data from a symposium on community-based learning, and addresses implications for educational policy.

Miller, B. A., & Hahn, K. (1997). Finding their own place: Youth in three small rural communities take part in instructive school-to-work experiences. Charleston: ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education & Small Schools ED 413-122.
This monograph documents community-based educaitonal practices that hold promise for rural communities struggling to survive in difficult times. It includes a review of research on school-to-work programs and portrays three rural schools that have worked closely with their communities (Broadus, MT, Saco, MT, and Methow Valley, WA) to engage youth in experiences that benefit their communities and prepare youth to be producrtive members of a democratic society. It also discusses how these projects can be adapted for use in other communities. The last chapter addresses the use of policy development as a tool to raise support for school-to-work program development and innovative changes.

Parker, E. (1998). Telecommunications and rural development: Threats and opportunities. In Rural America at the Crossroads: Networking for the Future, Follow-up Report (pp. 93-121). Lexington: University of Kentucky, TVA Rural Studies, September.

Peshkin, A. (1978). Growing up American: Schooling & the Survival of Community. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
The relationships between student and high school, and school and community in a small, rural Midwestern community ("Mansfield") were documented through on-site interviews, tapes, diaries, and minutes of school board meetings. Mansfield school district had a population of about 2,200 persons and somewhat over 500 K-12 students. Using the participant-observer technique, work began in Mansfield in August, 1972, and continued for one and a half years. The study developed through the eyes of the people; students, teachers, parents, board members, and others described their opinions and feelings toward their school and the type of education they received. The material strengthed the theory that the rural school and community are closely related; when the school is removed the community is likely to disappear. Further, although schools are traditionally thought of as places especially for youth, what actually was shown to govern the school setting was an adult group's sense of the elements of survival in a particular culture's terms. Because this was an in-depth study of just one community and school, the findings are not generalizable to rural communities across America. There is, however, enough similarity to other communities to make certain conclusions about the strong school-community relationship found in most rural communities.

Petkovich, M. D., & Ching, C. T. K. (1977). Some educational and socio-economic impacts of closing a high school in a small rural community. Reno, NV: Agricultural Experiment Station, Max C. Fleischmann College of Agriculture, University of Nevada.
This bulletin examines some of the effects of closing a small high school in a rural community and busing the students to a large consolidated highs chool. The major educational effects on the students would be a decline in their involvement in school activities and development of social skills. There is evidence that a large school boosts students' specialization in an activity. The major socioeconomic effects would be a loss of school-sponsored community activities and some reduction in employment and total sales in the local economy. No judgement is made on how these factors should be used in making a decision. This bulletin is intended to bring to the attention of decision makers information usually not considered in the school consolidation problem.

Reynolds, D. R. (1995). Rural education: Decentering the consolidation debate. In E. N. Castle (Ed.), The Changing American Countryside: Rural People and Places (pp. 451-480). Lawrence, KS: University Press of Kansas.
A historical profile of rural school consolidation in Iowa, 1895-mid-1960s. Several phases are discussed: (1) school consolidation as a response to population decline in the early 1900s & reformers' distrust of rural people & their culture; (2) creation of a dominant class alliance & a iscourse of consolidation & rural opposition to consolidation & attempts at its containment; (3) the interwar years & assessment of the results of the consolidation movement, including access of rural students to a high school education &

the rise of a new sense of community; & (4) postwar attempts at reorganization. The political economy of rural educational reform is discussed. 2 Charts, 5 Graphs.

Rickert, V. I., Davis, S. O., Riley, A. W., & Ryan, S. (1997). Rural school-based clinics: Are adolescents willing to use them and what services do they want? J School Health, 67(4), 144-8.
Using a theoretical model of access, factors associated with rural adolescents' willingness to use primary care services through a school- based health center (SBHC) were examined. Standardized measures of health status and use were administered to 633 adolescents in grades 7- 12 who resided in one rural western Maryland county. Although only 6.5% (n = 41) of the sample indicated a willingness to change their regular source of care to an SBHC, greater numbers of adolescents reported a willingness to use SBHC services, with 18%, 38%, 25%, and 16%, indicating interest in routine, acute medical, miscellaneous, and reproductive health care services, respectively. Logistic regression analysis found those adolescents who reported eligibility for free- reduced lunch and no regular source of care for illness were 3.3 and 5.4 times more likely, respectively, to use an SBHC as a primary care site than those unwilling to change their source of care. Data suggest that initially many rural adolescents appear unwilling to change their primary care site to an SBHC, but do express a willingness to use offered services.

Rosenfeld, S. (1977). Centralization versus decentralization: A case study of rural education in Vermont. In J. P. Sher (Ed.), Education in Rural America: A Reassessment of Conventional Wisdom (pp. 205-268). Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc.

Rosenfeld, S., & Sher, J. P. (1977). The urbanization of rural schools, 1840-1970. In J. P. Sher (Ed.), Education in Rural America: A Reassessment of Conventional Wisdom (pp. 11-42). Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc.

Sederberg, C. H. (1987). Economic role of school districts in rural communities. Research in Rural Education, 4(3), 125-130.
The author analyzes economic data from six nonmetropolitan Minnesota counties to demonstrate that educational operations of school districts have secondary economic effects that are important in rural communities. These economic effects include (1) purchasing power of large payrolls, (2) employment opportunities, (3) stimulation of retail trade, (4) recapture of locally collected state and federal taxes, (5) maintenance of property values, and (6) support of banking services. Rural educators can interact district financial and personnel data with income, sales, tax, employment and other information prepared by state and federal agencies to interpret the economic role of school districts in rural areas. Secondary economic effects of school operations offset some educational costs.

Sher, J. P., & Tompkins, R. B. (1977). Economy, efficiency, and equality: The myths of rural school and district consolidation. In J. P. Sher (Ed.), Education in Rural America: A Reassessment of Conventional Wisdom (pp. 43-77). Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc.
The policy of consolidating rural school districuts was advocated given the promise of greater resources for the education and future success for rural children. The evidence on

consolidation's economic and community benefits are incomplete and rarely identifies liabilities or problems. This chapter attempts to address some of the unchallenged assumptions about school consolidation, primarily cost savings and quality of education.

Smith, J. P., & Fleming-Clower, R. (1986). School-based industries in low enrollment high schools in declining farming areas: A North Dakota case. Rural Sociological Society (Association paper 86S18877).
The northern plains farm financial crisis may shut down as many as 10% of the farms. Community institutions are projected to decline as well, including rural schools. Faced with these grim projections, school administrators are seeking solutions, such as one developed by the Bremer Foundation & the State Dept. of Public Instruction school-based industries. A low-enrollment high school hosts the business, acting like an incubator; students learn entrepreneurial skills, with the help of staff & volunteer parents. Net funds are invested in other community projects as part of a capital retention plan for the community. Eventually the business will be taken out of the school, and provide jobs for graduates. Four communities were selected, & attitude surveys conducted in summer 1985. By summer 1986, each community had at least one school-based business, and one community had three businesses and a students' Young Entrepreneurs Club. In the smallest town (population 95), the school reopened the community cafe.

Strang, D. (1987). The administrative transformation of American education: School district consolidation, 1938-1980. Administrative Science Quarterly, 32(3), 352-366.
Over the period 1938-1980, the local administrative units of U.S. education were transformed from small & informal community arrangements into large, professionally run bureaucratic organizations. The causes of this structural change in U.S. education are explored by analyzing official statistics on the speed & extent of school district consolidation. It is argued that the growth & formalization of district organizations through consolidation have originated largely from the expanding role of state bureaucracies; because states usually gave money undesignated for specific expenditures, school districts were self-motivated to consolidate to best use the funds. Cross-sectional & longitudinal analysis of the numbers of school districts per state support this argument. Not specific to rural consolidation, though urbanization is controlled for in data analysis.

Streifel, J. S., Holman, D., & Foldesy, G. (1992). An overview of the research on school district consolidation. Journal of Rural and Small Schools, 5(6), 34-39.
This article reviews the research that supports either the advantages or disadvantages of school reorganization. Many of the studies reviewed have conflicting conclusions, particularly those evaluating the economic benefits and social costs of rural school closure. Major points of both sides of the controversy are summarized. Suggestions to consider prior to merging school districts are provided, as well as a call for more research into actual costs of consolidated school facilities and hidden community impacts.

Terwilliger, S. H. (1994). Early access to health care services through a rural school-based health center. J School Health, 64(7), 284-9.
School-based health centers (SBHCs) and school-linked health centers (SLHCs) represent relatively new models for health care service delivery. This article examines the question

Are SBHCs accessible as defined by four criteria of accessibility: available, community-based, affordable, and culturally acceptable? A literature review and an examination of a rural SBHC providing care to young children are presented in this paper. Both support the hypothesis that SBHCs are accessible to children and families in the school community. In particular, this SBHC's enrollment rate of 98% and its usage rate of 99% provide strong evidence that SBHCs are culturally acceptable. Ten strategies for a successful SBHC are presented to assist in planning and implementation of other SBHCs.

Vidich, A. J. & Bensman, J. (1968). Small Town in Mass Society (revised ed.). Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press.

Warner, W. & Lunt, P. (1941). The Social Life of a Modern Community. Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press.

Webb, L. D. (1979). Fiscal implications of school district reorganization. J Education Finance, 4(Winter), 342-357.
An analysis of economies of scale based on school district size and an analysis of three state-wide school district consolidation scenarios based on actual Colorado school districts. Option 1 reorganization goal was to reduce the total number of districts with enrollment of no less than 1,500 (optimum enrollment for economy of scale); student travelling distance limit of 65 miles was set to truncate boundaries; number of school districts fell from 181 to 80. Option 2 reorganization goal was based on no student travelling more than 10 miles to school, with no minimumenrollment size; number of school districts fell from 181 to 161, none met 1,500 minimum economy of scale enrollment. Option 3 allowed student travelling distance of 30 miles; number of school districts fell from 181 to 97; 44 of the new districts were below 1,500 enrollment, but most of the smallest schools (enrollemnt under 100) were reorganized. Option 1 reduced total number of districts more than Optin 3 and had 22 districts with enrollment below 1,500 compared to 44. Option 3 has an average travelling distance of 15.4 miles compared to 23.9 miles for Option 1. Transportation costs were not analyzed. The tax base across most reorganized districts were equalized. School district size and economies of scale relating to it are not absolute and must be evaluated for each situation.

White, F., & Tweeten, L. (1973). Optimal school district size emphasizing rural areas. American Journal of Agricultural Economics, February, 45-53.
Previous education cost models have ignored transportation and quality of education issues. This study analyzes data from 27 independent Oklahoma school districts to estimate the most cost-effective school district size. Cost components include district overhead costs, transportation for rural school districts including student transit time, cost of quality education and facilities. Differences in curriculum, student density and transportation costs in sparsely populated areas cause long-run average costs to go up, making optimal school district size dependent on local variables.

Bibliography II: Advocacy and Position Papers

____. Raising our future: Families, schools, and communities joining together. A national resource guide of family support and education programs for parents, educators, community leaders, and policy makers. (1995). (Report No. ERIC ED 392-539). Harvard Family Research Project, Cambridge, MA.
Family support programs have been attracting increased attention, and are at the center of efforts to build systems of integrated, comprehensive, and preventive family-focused services. This handbook, developed by the Harvard Family Research Project (HFRP), profiles 73 school-affiliated family support and education programs in the United States to help principals, policy makers, program directors, evaluators, and teachers make decision regarding such programs. The handbook serves as a national resource guide, describing the scope of programs currently implemented in schools serving families with young children. Following an overview that discusses major factors contributing to the success of these programs, the program descriptions are divided into the following chapters: (1) "Preschool and Early Childhood Programs with Parent Involvement"; (2) "Support for Special Needs Children and Their Parents", (3) "Parent-School Partnerships for School Readiness and Enrichment", (4) "Home Visits for Parenting Support", (5) "School and Center-Based Parenting Support", (6) "Teens, Parenthood, and Child Development"; (7) "Family Literacy and Intergenerational Skill Development", (8) "Family Resource Centers", and (9) "Family, School, Community Parternships." Each of the case studies includes demographic information, program philosophy, features, curriculum, site information, funding and staffing information, and evaluation efforts. Contains resources for information, advocacy, and research for family support programs.

____. Redesigning rural education: Ideas for action. (1986). (Report No. ERIC ED 297-897)
Describes three Mid-continent Regional Educational Laboratory (McREL) programs designed to improve elementary and secondary education in the midwestern United States. Capsule descriptions of 28 working rural programs, including rural school organizations, community study projects, and technology programs, are provided; the name and address of a contact person is included for each program.

"Rural education: In pursuit of excellence." (1981). New Directions in Rural Education. Education Department of Western Australia and OECD/CERI.
From Australia. The introduction, "Education and Local Development," provides a theme of rural education and development, with emphasis on widening the limits of programs and facilities to serve all age groups. International perspectives on rural education are included with the 20 selected papers. Four topics are covered: (1) school quality, opportunity, and survival; (2) community involvement, service centers, responsibilities, reorganisation and declining enrollments; (3) school finance from a commonwealth perspective, a state perspective, and economic aspects or effectiveness; (4) curriculum and staffing, pre-service teacher training, syllabus design, parental reaction, services and handicapped services.

Adams, F., & Miller, J. That little has changed: Vocational education in the rural South. (Report No. ERIC ED 199-014).
The South's rural high schools, particularly their vocational education programs, reflect the history, social relationships, attitudes and values of the region. Competitive and

competency examinations eliminate large numbers of students from advancement to more intensive academic work or vocational skills training. Many students from poor families take vocational education as their sole means for gaining economic security. vocational education is at the bottom of the educational systemin the class origins of its students and in their job prospects; it "has become a means to prepare rural Southern youngsters for entry-level openings in any low-skilled, low-wage industry which happens to need job fodder." The curriculum also perpetuates stereotyped roles for blacks and women, and often fosters emotional and academic dependency and unquestioning acceptance of authority.

Baker, M., & McCracken, J. D. (1991). Community and school characteristics and voter behavior in Ohio rural school district property tax elections. Special Circular - Ohio Agricultural Research and Development Center, 138, 51-59.
A study of 74 rural Ohio school districts consisted of a survey completed by school principals, data collected from the Ohio Department of Education and the U.S. Census Bureau for years between 1984-1988. Objectives were to find the variables which best predict succesful property tax outcomes in rural school districts. Results: The most predictive variables for voter support of tax issues were negative: the percentage of poor students, the percentage of bond issues, the percentage of continuous issues, the percentage of games won in boys varsity basketball and the percentage of special elections. Positive associations were found between successful property tax issues and higher average community income and the percentage of community members with 12 or more years of education.

Beaulieu, L. J. (1989). Building partnerships for people: Addressing the rural South's human capital needs. A report of the task force on alternatives for leadership and human resource development in rural communities in the South. Paper Annual Meeting of the Rural Sociological Society.
Social and economic problems confront the rural communities of the South. Diversification of the rural economy is the key to revitalizing the rural South, but new industries, need a more highly skilled work force than exists in the region. Economies are not sustainable in a rural South that leads the nation in the rate of high school dropouts and the proportion of adults that are functionally illiterate. In 1988 nearly 39% of all Southern nonmetro adults and 55% of Southern nonmetro blacks lacked a high school education, compared to 24.4% of all metropolitan Southerners. In 1980 an estimated 25% of all rural Southerners and 40% of rural Southern blacks were functionally illiterate. In addition, the better educated are leaving rural areas, showing the greatest net outmigration rates from the rural South in 1985-87. It has been suggested that these problems are symptomatic of a failed educational system. Placing the burden on the educational system alone is not, however, satisfactory. Rather, these problems must become the collective concern of the family, the school, and the community. Building partnerships among these important local elements is essential, sending a clear signal to all residents that academic performance and literacy are highly valued goals of the community.

Branch, K. J. (1987). Before you consolidate the village school: Thoughts on small town education. Small Town, 18(2), 24-27.
Abstract unavailable.

Bowie, B. (1995). Small rural schools and their communities and the impact of rapid change. Education in Rural Australia, 5 (2), 35-40.
Presents a case study of the impact of rapid educational policy change toward self-management on two small rural schools and their communities in Victoria (Australia). Suggests that self-management requires strong community support, and the quality of this support is directly related to a sense of autonomy and ownership. Community support is considerably weakened by school closure or consolidation.

Brandau, D., & Collins, J. (1992). Schooling, literature, and work in a rural mountain community. (Report No. ERIC ED 352-663).
Drawing upon arguments from the sociology of work and from debates about literacy, this paper explores the connection between schooling, work, and language through an ethnographic analysis of school and community in a rural, northeastern United States setting. The paper presents evidence of a disjunction between schooling and adult work and between schooling and experiences with literature, challenging the school's self-understood mission. The paper concludes that educators should stop assuming that schooling leads to adult work and should recognize and cultivate student self-direction.

Branscome, J. (1982). San Juan, Utah: Ending a White-Indian school battle by the process method. In P. M. Nachtigal (Ed.), Rural Education: In Search of a Better Way (pp. 157-169). Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc.
A description of the NWREL school-community process that led to a community-based settlement of a Navajo class action lawsuit over unequal access to educational opportunity for Navajo children. The process included forming school-community groups (SCGs) that provided the opportunity for Navajo and white community members to discuss school problems. At the end of the process, voter precints which had school-community groups approved school bonds, while those without the public forum defeated the bonds. New schools were built on the reservation and 80% of Navajos surveyed thought the school-community groups increased community participation in education, 65% of the Anglos surveyed knew little of the program, 26% of school staff knew little of the program, but two-thirds of all respondents surveyed thought the program had improved community-based educational decision making.

Broomhall, D. (1995). The influence of the local economy and the willingness to move on human capital accumulation in central Appalachia. Journal of Agricultural and Applied Economics, 27(2), 488-499.
This study uses logit analysis to examine the influence of the perception of local economic opportunities and the willingness to move on the educational aspirations of rural high-school-aged youths. Those youths who are more willing to move have a greater career opportunity set and a strong incentive to achieve in school, since education allows them to compete for jobs elsewhere. A low willingness to move, coupled with a low perception of

local job opportunities, translates into a low expected return to education, which reduces the incentive to achieve in school.

Contine, T. (1992). A first step in school renewal: A school climate survey for schools in rural settings: For parents, support staff, community. Kearney: Educational Systems Associates, Inc.
Abstract unavailable.

Coogan, M. H. (1981). At the forks of troublesome creek: The Hindeman Settlement school. Appalachia, 14(1), 33-40.
Traces the history of the settlement school; describes cultural programs it now offers to supplement the county school system in art and music, day care, adult education, bookmobile services, and Appalachian folk arts; also describes school-sponsored regional writers' workshops, Appalachian Family Folk Week, and Appalachian Visual Arts Week.

Delargy, P., Hubel, K., Luther, V., & Wall, M. (1992). Building communities from within: Schools and economic development. Vol. CAT93501273). Fergus Falls, MN: Communicating for Agriculture, Inc.
A resource book that describes different approaches to school-community development. Working examples are given for school-based business, entrepreneurship development, economic diversification, and economic resources found in heritage research.

DeYoung, A. J. (1991). Struggling with Their Histories: Economic Decline and Educational Improvement in Four Rural Southeastern School Districts (Interpretive Perspectives on Education and Policy). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
This monograph draws on case studies of school-community partnership projects in four rural southeastern school districts in order to elaborate a thorough description of school contextual factors in the rural Southeast. In 1986, Appalachia Educational Labaoratory (AEL) received funding as part of a "rural initiative" to address economic decline and educational opportunities in rural areas. The following year, AEL implemented demonstration projects in Braxton County (West Virginia), Charlotte County (Virginia), and two Tennessee and Kentucky counties identified by pseudonyms. The goal of the 2-year project was to help rural schools and communities identify problem areas for school improvement and to analyze community and economic factors contributing to economic decline. Chapter 1 describes methodologies, focal concerns, and project implementation. Chapters 2-5 present the four case studies, focusing on community and school leadership dynamics and providing a historical analysis of each county's economic, political, and sociological context. The last chapter expands on the general theme that previous and current social, economic, and political conditions surrounding rural schools affect present educational conditions and school improvement strategies and practices. This chapter also describes recent (1990) dynamics in each county and assesses school improvement practices implemented by AEL.

DeYoung, A. J. (Ed.). (1991). Rural Education: Issues and Practice. Source Books on Education, Vol. 25. Garland Reference Library of Social Science, Vol. 473. New York, NY: Garland Publishing.

This collection of essays on rural education in the United States aims to fill a gap in the educational literature by highlighting the available research on rural schools and their contexts. The three sections of the book focus on the historical, social, political, and economic contexts of rural education; topics of practical interest for rural practitioners; and the future of American rural schooling.

DeYoung, A. J., Howley, C., & Theobald, P. (1995). The cultural contradictions of middle schooling for rural community survival. Journal of Research in Rural Education, 11(1), 24-35.
The middle school movement is not about being better able to meet the learning needs of preadolescents; middle schools are attractive mostly for administrative, not pedagogical reasons. Middle school advocates overlook the cultural context of rural schools and the violence done to communities when middle school construction results in rural school consolidation.

Dreier, W. H., & Goudy, W. (1994). "Is There Life in Town after the Death of the High School?" or High Schools and the Population of Midwest Towns. (Report No. ERIC ED 379-117). Paper presented at the Annual Rural and Small Schools Conference, Manhattan, KS, October 24, 1994.
An overview of the history of rural school consolidation in north central Iowa reveals that by 1994, 9 of the 10 high schools in towns of less than 500 in 1940 had closed, and 3 of the 5 high schools in towns with populations of 500-999 had closed. However, all three towns with populations over 1,000 in 1940 had high schools in 1993-94. This down-sizing trend is evident in all areas of Iowa in that the number of towns with a high school decreased to 727 in 1950, to 419 in 1970, and to 359 in 1990. This study examined whether a greater percentage of incorporated towns in Iowa with a high school had a population increase, compared to towns without a high school during the same decades. During 1930-50, rural areas lost population, but the state gained and the number of places with high schools did not change. During 1950-70, population trends were the same, but a greater number of places lost their high schools to consolidation. During 1970-90, the state lost population, and the number of communities without a high school continued to increase. Data analysis revealed that half the communities with a high school gained a significant amount (5 percent or more) of population over 2 or more decades, and within the same time frame, three-fourths of communities without a high school were losing population. This study concludes that a community without a high school loses population faster when compared to all the towns losing population during the same time period. Contains seven references. (LP)

Dunne, F. (1982). "Have You Considered Reorganization?" Iowa's People United for Rural Education. In P. M. Nachtigal Rural Education: In Search of a Better Way (pp. 185-206). Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc.
History of the Iowa PURE movement started in the 1970s as a reaction against proposed state legislation to consolidate schools with low enrollments.

Ebmeier, H. H. (1986). The effect of closing a high school on parent attitudes, student attitudes, and student achievement. (Report No. ERIC ED 278-107).

Over the last 10 years, declining school enrollments resulted in nearly 30,000 school closures nationwide. Little research has been done, however, on the effects of closing a high school. This report interprets data gathered both before and after the closing of Wheaton Warrenville High School in a large Chicago suburban school district to determine the impact of the school closure on (1) student achievement, (2) student attitudes, and (3) parent attitudes. Data interpretation shows that the school closure did not have any measurable impact on student grades or achievement as measured by standardized tests, nor did it affect such student personality characteristics as self-confidence, sense of efficacy, and self-concept. Parent attitudes, however, reflected many negative perceptions of the school closure's effect on the school community and on the academic achievement of the students. These negative opinions can be partly attributed to parents' lack of access to factual data, to the degree of controversy reported by the press, and to the perceptions of what they believed to be the community consensus.

Forsythe, D. (1983). The Rural Community and the Small School. Aberdeen: Aberdeen Univ. Press.
Forsythe's book analyzes schools in rural Scotland. It includes a review of previous research, case studies of areas with good school-community relations and a survey of communities in which schools had closed. Sample size was 457 people. Among the effects of school closure were reported: longer journey to school for children; feelings of powerlessness among community members when closure was locally opposed; resulting alienation of community and school because of distance and lack of school involvement in community events.

Fuller, W. E. (1982). The Old Country School: The Story of Rural Education in the Middle West. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
This book examines the educational history of the Midwest during the late 19th and 20th centuries. Specifically, the book overviews the development of rural education in Wisconsin, Ohio, Iowa, Nebraska, Kansas, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, and Minnesota. Data sources include the reports of state superintendents, Annual Reports of the United States Commissioner of Education, and diaries, journals, and memoirs preserved by state historical societies and state libraries. The book describes the origins and operation of one- room schools, the rise of professional educators, and the long-standing conflict between educators and farmers over the adequacy of schools. Factors are identified that contributed to the demise of small independent school districts controlled by farmers and the creation of township districts--the beginning of the trend toward centralization of rural schools. The book also addresses the role of county superintendents and local boards of education, the influence of politics on educational development, the establishment of normal schools for educating teachers, the inequalities between urban and rural schools, and the struggles between farmers and professional educators about appropriate solutions to rural schooling problems. The continuing loss of rural population and declining school enrollment led farmers to realize they could no longer withstand the demands for change, and through the 1950s, rural one-teacher schools were consolidated into larger, centralized schools. This book concludes that despite their supposed deficiencies, midwestern one-teacher schools successfully educated

thousands of children and virtually eliminated illiteracy. Includes photographs, chapter notes, and an index.

Galbraith, M. W. (1992). Education in the Rural American Community: A Lifelong Process. Melbourne, FL: Krieger Publishing Company.
This book provides a conceptual and practical framework for understanding lifelong education in the context of the multifaceted rural community. The goal of the discussion is to develop educational programs involving new combinations of services and new organizational arrangements so that individuals will become resourceful, autonomous, and continuous learners within the various contexts of their community. It contains the following chapters and authors: (1) "Lifelong Education and Community (Michael W. Galbraith); (2) "The Rural Context for Education: Adjusting the Images" (Daryl Hobbs); (3) "Elementary Education" (Ivan D. Muse and Gloria Jean Thomas); (4) "Secondary Education" (Paul Nachtigal); (5) "Vocational Education" (David Little and Robert Priebe); (6) "Special Education" (Doris Helge); (7) "Higher Education" (Douglas M. Treadway); (8) "University Extension" (John T. Pelham); (9) "Rural Community Adult Education" (Michael W. Galbraith and David W. Price); (10) "Special Interest Organizations" (William S. Griffith); (11) "The Rural Public Library" (Bernard Vavrek); (12) "Churches and Religious Education" (Paulette T. Beatty and Barbara P. Robbins); (13) "Educational Needs of Rural Women" (Vicki Luther and Marian Todd); (14) "Rural Education and Minorities" (Ray Barnhardt); (15) "Resources for Rural Lifelong Education" (Jacqueline D. Spears, Gwen Bailey, and Sue C. Maes); and (16) "Future Prospects for Rural Lifelong Education (Michael W. Galbraith). The appendix contains resources for rural lifelong education.

Gotts, E. E., & Purnell, R. F. (1986). Families and schools in rural Appalachia. American Journal of Community Psychology, 14(5), 499-520.
Based on a literature review, rural education & rural families & children as they interface with schools in the Appalachian region are discussed. For nearly two decades, the Appalachia Educational Laboratory in Charleston, WVa, has pursued systematic interdisciplinary research & development aimed at improving the effectiveness of rural education by strengthening the working linkages between families & schools. The Laboratory's programmatic work is summarized in order to illustrate-through both its breadth & specificity -- the continual interchange that necessarily occurs between research & successful community practice in home-school relations. Implications & recommendations deriving from personal experience are considered, & heuristics that differentiate rural from urban settings are listed & illustrated. Recommendations are proferred on such issues as educational cooperatives, personnel preparation for rural schools, curriculum, community participation & involvement, & the challenge of achieving equitable outcomes in rural schools vis-a-vis those in urban settings. 59 References.

Gudenberg, K. A. (1981). Toward a more rational education-economic development connection in rural America: The colloborative model. (Report No. ERIC ED 206-925)
Rural work-education councils are free-standing voluntary associations of community leaders averaging around 21 to 25 voting members who are organized by task-specific action committees working to improve and expand educational and economic

development options and thus ease the education-to-work transition in rural America. There are currently three principal successful rural work-education councils organizational models. These are the local nexus, the state nexus, and the national nexus. Included among the factors affecting collaborative education/economic development are parallel human resource development, collaboration at all levels within and without the community, formation of manageable objectives and initiatives, attention to the energy needs and directions of rural economics, and reappraisal of values by rural communities. Several distinguishing elements are critical in determining the appropriate council model, including indices of economic well-being, community socio-economic stratification, institutional development, and the nature and types of educational and training resources. While different rural conditions and needs may require different organizational models, all rural work-education councils need the involvement and support of a broad cross-section of community residents. In addition, there are several functions that most rural work-education councils should undertake. Among these are information and data retrieval, development, dissemination, and utilization; maintenance of a support role for existing institutions and groups; minimizing replication of services; and maintenance of a mutually beneficial relationship between process and outcomes.

Gulliford, A. (1991). America's country schools. Washington, DC: Preservation Press.
At the turn of the century, over 200,000 one-room schools existed in the United States. These simple, vernacular buildings represented the nation's commitment to education and were also the center of community life. The country school continues to be a powerful cultural symbol. This book consists of three parts. The first section describes country schools' educational and cultural legacy. Chapter 1 gives an overview placing country schools in the larger social and historical framework of American education. Chapter 2 describes the country school curriculum, discipline, and teaching methods. Chapter 3 presents anecdotes and memoirs describing teacher education, teaching conditions, and teachers' lives on the Western frontier in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Chapter 4 features oral history material on the role country schools played as rural community centers. Chapter 5 discusses the assimilation of immigrants and minorities through rural schools. Chapter 6 looks at public, private, and parochial country schools in operation today. The second section examines the great variety of design in country school architecture. The third section discusses the preservation and restoration of country schools; describes new uses as museums, centers for living history programs, and community centers; presents preservation case studies; and lists one-room schools, state by state, that remain in public ownership. Contains approximately 275 references, 400 photographs, numerous illustrations and line drawings, a list of 21 organizational sources of information, and an index of schools.

Hammer, P. C. (1997). Rural Education and Rural Community Viability. Master's thesis, Marshall University.
This thesis examines the ways in which rural schools support or undermine rural community viability in the United States. Beginning in the late 19th century, the diverse people of the United States came under the power of a single ideology of modernization and the superiority of urban culture. This ideology has resulted in the American transition from a rural people who labored on the land to an industrialized people compelled to

wander from place to place in search of industrial-based work. A general population lacking a connection to place has had negative impacts on the environment and on the viability of rural communities. As part of the story, schools have produced and reproduced human, cultural, and social capital; supported the ideology of "progress"; and promoted the departure of rural youth to urban opportunities. The history and present circumstances of three rural groups--the Old Order Amish, the Menominee Nation, and rural Appalachians in West Virginia--illustrate how events of the national rural-to-urban transition played out locally and how schools continue to impact community viability in terms of cultural, social, human, ecological (or natural), and financial capital. Meaningful reform of rural schools requires greater understanding of the local context in which they are situated and increased attention to learning to live well in a rural place.

Hect, K. A. (1981). The Educational Challenge in Rural Alaska: Era of Local Control. In J. P. Sher (Ed.), Rural Education in Urbanized Nations: Issues and Innovations (pp. 185-211). Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc.
A history of Alaska's education system beginning in the Russian era (1783-1867) to the modern period of 21 Regional Educational Attendance Areas (REAAs), with special attention to the Alaska Native population. Reviews REAA transition from federal BIA and state controlled schools to local control through the second year of operation (1979). Primary funding responsibility remained with the state as REAAs were not organized as units of local government with the authority to levy taxes. Decentralizing control was a complicated process, and increased quality of education was not easily attained simply by converting schools to local control, but school boards were positive about the ability to tailor education to local rural needs.

Hedlund, D. (1993). Listening to rural adolescents: Views on the rural community and the importance of adult interactions. Journal of Research in Rural Education, 9(3), 150-159.
A longitudinal study, interpretive analysis of interviews focusing on perceptions of the community, family, school social dynamics, and aspects of self-identify with 20 adolescents from a rural high school, is discusssed within the framework of two organizing dimensions: living in a rural community and the importance of adult-adolescent interactions. Participants both liked and disliked growing up in a small rural community. The interpersonal intimacy of a rural community was seen as providing a sense of safety and belonging while taking away personal privacy and fostering prejudices. Perceptions of community isolation include lack of social activities, difficulty with transportation, and, positively, an identification with nature. Adult interactions that were perceived as important range from global perceptions of community support for school and adolescent activities to interpersonal contacts with teachers, family members, and other adults. Participants seemed to be simply asking to be heard and responded to as individuals. The importance of listening and understanding the unique concerns of adolescents in each rural community is emphasized. Positive community participation is important in educating adolescents to be involved community members with a stake in the rural community.

Heiland, T. M. (1991). Alternative approaches in rural development: School based enterprises and policy considerations for Maine. Master's thesis, University of Maine, Orono, ME.
Abstract unavailable.

Howley, C. B., & Eckman, J. (1997). Sustainable small schools: A handbook for rural communities. (Report No. ERIC ED 402-136).
This book aims to help parents, community members, and educators find resources, design school options, and take action together to improve small rural schools in ways that meet community and student needs. Chapter 1 discusses the virtues of smallness, outlines basic assumptions about the role and nature of good education, examines the school-community relationship and the need to reestablish parent and community involvement, and underscores the ability of citizens to be educational change agents. Chapter 2 discusses the aims and history of mass schooling in industrial society; social and political forces driving school consolidation; ways to address the "hard" issues of consolidation (course offerings, costs, achievement); and aspects of state policy making. This chapter also lists 29 key studies and literature reviews about school size. Chapter 3 provides examples of strategies to make the rural community the focus of curricula, including community study, the Foxfire approach, and school involvement in local economic development. Chapter 4 describes innovative tactics for organizing rural schools, including the 4-day week, mixed-age (or multigrade) classrooms, and use of electronic technology. Chapter 5 provides strategic and tactical tips for making change happen. Chapter 6 is an annotated bibliography and resource list in eight sections: partnerships between schools and families or communities, coalition building, needs assessment, research on consolidation and school size, innovations featured in the book, rural resources from regional educational laboratories, and tools for finding information. Includes an index.

Howley, C., DeYoung, A. J., & Theobald, P. (1996). Rural blues. American School Board Journal, 183(8), 42-44.
Between 1968 and 1991, the number of middle schools in the United States quadrupled from about 2,000 to more than 8,500. A study in four states--Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia--suggests a connection between pursuit of the middle school concept, school closings, and diminished chances for the survival of rural communities.

Husdale, F. S., Kleinsasser, A., & Gibbs, D. (1993). The Little Blue School: The Story of a School & Ranching Community in Early-Day Wyoming. Scottsdale: Tongue River Press.
Tells in detail the story of a Wyoming ranching community & its school from the time of the first settlers until 1990, when the building was restored. It also tells of rural school experiences in general that occurred throughout the era & region. The authors, experienced teachers & academician, used in their research archival documents, oral histories & artifacts as well as published material from the field of rural education. Appendix includes how-to directions for school games.

Ingram, E. J., & McIntosh, R. G. (1983). Building school-community relationships in Northern communities: A sourcebook of policy alternatives and recommendations. (Report No. ERIC ED 237-283).
The 3-part companion volume to the final report of the Education North Evaluation Project serves as a policy development resource book for anyone who must address questions of school-community relations. Part I focuses on the educational issues of concern to policy makers and their advisors in very remote, interracial, poor northern communities. Those issues fall into five categories: social (population explosion, housing,

apathy, health), cultural (multiculturalism, prejudice), economic (resource development, seasonal employment), educational (purposes, priorities, community control), and political (distrust of government agencies, community organization and involvement, native movements). Part II presents seven strategic alternatives for use by senior level government to set the stage for the local improvement of the quality of school-community relationships. The strategies (local education society, community school, local control, curriculum development resource center, consulting and facilitating, community development and adult education) are explained along with their strengths and weaknesses. Illustrations of their use are included. Part III is an attempt to develop a contingency framework for selecting an appropriate strategy by assessing the community's leadership ability, maturity, and readiness for participation based on situational leadership theory. The volume also includes guidelines for developing an ongoing project similar to Education North.

Iverson, M. J., & Brown, R. A. (1979). Research report of a southern regional study in agricultural education. (Report No. ERIC ED 179-797)
A study was conducted to determine the role of vocational agriculture/agribusiness programs in the occupational success of program graduates from the southern region. Cooperating researchers in ten southern states administered a two-page questionnaire by mail to a sample of 1974 graduates of high school vocational agriculture/agribusiness programs. The 1,252 respondents were primarily male, age 22-23, caucasian, from rural homes, employed in a nonagricultural job or farming, and earning over $10,000 annually. A majority of respondents completed three or four years of vocational agriculture and Future Farmers of America (FFA) activities, held the chapter farmer degree, and had several years of supervised experience programs. Experiences in vocational agriculture/agribusiness received high ratings from the graduates. They were in less agreement about teacher assistance, but highly supportive of specific program functions. Ninety-two percent said they would enroll again if they had it to do over.

Kaplan, D. W., Brindis, C., Naylor, K. E., Phibbs, S. L., Ahlstrand, K. R., & Melinkovich, P. (1998). Elementary school-based health center use. Pediatrics, 101(6), e12.
Background. The number of school-based health centers (SBHCs) has grown from 40 in 1985 to >900 in 1996. During the 1996-1997 school year there were 914 SBHCs, 32% of which were located in elementary schools. Despite the relatively large number of elementary SBHCs in existence, SBHCs serving elementary-aged students are not adequately represented in the literature. Objective. To analyze physical and mental primary health care utilization in a comprehensive elementary SBHC for an underserved Hispanic population. Design. Retrospective analyses of services used at an elementary SBHC during the 1995-1996 school year. We describe physical and mental health services utilization provided by SBHC staff who offered a range of primary medical and mental health services. Patients. The study population was predominately Hispanic, and comprised of 811 elementary school students (grades preschool through fifth) registered for SBHC use. Analyses were conducted on 591 students who used the SBHC. Results. The 591 SBHC users made 2443 visits, ranging between 1 and 54 visits/individual, mean 4 visits/student. Two thirds of visits (1638) were medical provider visits, and 33% (798) were mental health provider visits. Most students (75%) saw a medical provider

exclusively, 9% saw a mental health provider exclusively, and 16% of students were seen by both. Mean duration of medical provider visits +/-SD was 15 +/- 13 minutes, mean for mental health provider visits +/-SD, 37 +/- 16 minutes. Of the 3035 diagnoses, 64% were medical and 36% were mental health diagnoses. These diagnostic frequencies are grouped as follows: acute medical (31%), health maintenance (22%), depression (10%), non-Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders-IV mental health diagnoses (8%), conflict disorder/emotional disturbance (8%), chronic medical (8%), academic/learning disorder (7%), anxiety disorder (3%), and other (4%). Conclusions. High rates of SBHC utilization by this population and the range of diagnoses recorded suggest health care delivered in a comprehensive, culturally-sensitive SBHC has the potential for impacting the health and well-being of underserved elementary-aged students.

Kay, S. et al. (1982). The Effect of School Consolidation on Fidelity to Traditional Value Systems. (Report No. ERIC ED 224-665)
Two rural Kentucky counties were sites for a survey measuring the effect of school consolidation on the transmission of values between parents and children. Owen County, in central Kentucky, has a completely consolidated school system. Johnson County, in eastern Kentucky, has a county system with multiple elementary sites and an independent system. In Johnson County, 177 fourth graders, 525 tenth graders, and 88 parents were surveyed. In Owen County, 128 fourth graders, 123 tenth graders, and 64 parents were surveyed. Traditional community values chosen for examination were social responsibility, acceptance of authority, individualism, expression vs. restraint, equalitarianism, and localism vs. cosmopolitanism. It was expected that the effects of consolidation would be reflected in a greater disparity between values of parents and their children. Results indicated various social, economic, and cultural influences have greater impact than consolidation on values held by individuals. Knowledge of the history, economic development and demographics of the two differing areas came to be seen as fundamental for an adequate interpretation of results.

Klein, K. (1985). The research on class size. Phi Delta Kappan, 66(8), 578-80.
Research on class size during the past decade indicates that dramatically smaller classes significantly improve student performance, do not encourage adoption of drastically different teaching methods, and lead to increased student- teacher contact. Other research suggests techniques for working with small groups and for reorganizing school priorities and schedules.

Lauglo, J. (1982). Rural primary school teachers as potential community Leaders? Contrasting historical cases in Western countries. Comparative Education, 18(3), 233-55.
Contrasts historical cases in Western countries concerning the idea that ordinary rural primary school teachers can play an important role as "animateurs"-- leaders in rural development activities. Reveals no historical evidence to support the idea that teachers can stimulate rural development.

Lindsay, P. (1982). The effect of high school size on student participation, satisfaction, and attendance. Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 4(1), 57-65.
Data from the National Longitudinal Study of the High School Class of 1972 were used to

investigate the effects of high school size on student participation (in athletics, drama, music, debating, journalism, or student government), student satisfaction (feeling part of the school, satisfaction with required courses), and student attendance.

McCracken, J. D. (1991). The Ohio rural school and viewed by community leaders. Special Circular - Ohio Agricultural Research and Development Center, 138, 8-9.
This study describes the perceptions of rural community leaders about interrelationships between the community and the school. Specific objectives were to: (1) describe the role of the school in the life of the community, (2) identify community expectations for the school relating to recreational and cultural activities, (3) examine community influences on the curriculum of the school, and (4) identify the strengths and weaknesses of the school in the eyes of the community. Business leaders view school as place where citizens learn basic education as well as civic responsibility.

Miller, B. A. (1990). Hard times in Mineral Valley: Rural decline, cooperation, and survival in the Stafford school district. Peabody Journal of Education, 67(4), 90-117.
Reports on a case study of a rural school district in the U.S. northwest that coped with declining school population and loss of revenues because of closure of mining operations during the 1980s. The report analyzes the problem-solving and decision- making activities which encouraged grass-roots leadership and community cooperation.

Monk, D. H., & Haller, E. J. (1986). Organizational alternatives for small rural schools. Final report to the Legislature of the State of New York. (Report No. ERIC ED 281-694).
This report provides an overview of a two-year study which analyzed reorganization /consolidation of small rural school districts, studied alternatives of inter-district resource sharing and new instructional technologies, and developed recommendations for changes in state laws/procedures. Researchers studied 11 small rural school districts in New York State, conducted interviews, studied community histories, analyzed statewide data, and reviewed research literature. Four conclusions emerged: (1) substantial problems existing in small rural school districts significantly disadvantage students, yet small districts provide important educational advantages to pupils and communities, (2) New York promotes district reorganization as the preferred solution to small rural school problems, (3) district reorganization has serious deficiencies and the state should not artificially encourage reorganization with financial incentives, and (4) neither resource sharing nor new technologies will solve problems related to school size. The report recommends 3 broad changes in state policy and 12 specific changes in state procedures/laws; the 3 broad changes are: (1) unbiased consideration of reorganization, (2) provision of additional organizational alternatives, and (3) state acceptance of financial responsibility for costs of expanding educational opportunities in small rural schools. Chapters discuss history of schooling in New York State, describe methodologies and towns/schools studied, examine politics/experiences of district reorganization, and explore resource sharing and innnovative technologies.

Mulkey, D. (1993). Education in the rural South: Policy issues & research needs. (Report No. ERIC ED 398-483).
This report overviews policy issues and research needs related to rural education in the

South, focusing on educational systems in Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia. It is generally accepted that the South compare unfavorably with the rest of the nation with regard to education and workforce quality. Thus, educational improvement is seen as crucial to the continued development of the region. A review of educational research literature and of state-level education data for southern states examines student performance (the role of schools, families, and communities), educational finance, and education and economic development. The report concludes that the education process is strongly influenced by factors beyond the control of schools. From the perspective of research, more definitive answers are needed as to the exact nature of school, family, and community relationships in order to design appropriate educational improvement policies. With regard to educational finance, evidence suggests that little improvement will be achieved by marginal changes in school funding, and that existing variations between and within states may represent more than marginal differences. Finally, when considering education as a rural development strategy, it is important to note that issues such as school and student performance, family and community problems, and economic development are interrelated. Research and policy debates must recognize and focus on the nature of these interactions. Data tables include information on number of school districts, enrollment, school district size, revenues for public schools, current expenditures per student and as a percentage of personal income, average salaries for instructional staff and per-capita income by state, and expenditures per-pupil by state.

Nachtigal, P. M. (1982). Rural Education: In Search of a Better Way. Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc.
A collection of thirteen accounts of rural schools that have tried some form of alternative school structure - curriculum, vocational.

Nelson, E. (1985). School Consolidation. ERIC Digest, Number Thirteen. (Report No. ERIC ED 282-346).
Positive effects of school consolidation include a greater variety of classes and extracurricular activities for students, and greater operational economic efficiency. Negative effects of school consolidation include less human contact, less input from teachers in decision-making, and fewer opportunities for change. Communities that do not have strong social service support are less able to remain viable after a school closure. The welfare of the community should be considered before a local school is closed or consolidated.

Newman, B. M., & Newman, P. R. (1987). The impact of high school on social development. Adolescence, 22(87), 525-534.
In reviewing the literature on the social impact of high school, six themes were identified: (1) students perceive strong norms for conformity to school rules; (2) the emphasis on conformity & control influences the quality of student/teacher relations, which tend to be role bound & inflexible; (3) paths to social status continue to emphasize athletic competence; (4) peer group identification has an impact on social relations within the larger community as well as in the school setting; (5) powerlessness is felt as a result of

the authoritarian approach to decision making; & (6) the overall high school environment does not enhance students' beliefs in the Bill of Rights. It is concluded that high school students have limited opportunities for flexible self-definition. As a result of the way they are treated by authority figures & the strong pressures toward conformity, many adolescents fail to learn the extent of their rights or effective strategies for the exercise of power. 25 References. (Copyright 1988, Sociological Abstracts, Inc., all rights reserved.)

Palmer, B. E. K. (1993). Developing a data base to document effectiveness of a K-12 rural school-based family resource center for recipients and service providers. (Report No. ERIC ED 376-409). Nova University.
The Family Resource Center (FRC), a recent concept in school-linked services, features a holistic approach to family-school-community collaboration. This practicum addresses four objectives: (1) to document baseline data on original FRC clients; (2) to develop a system for on-going case management facilitation; (3) to identify areas of effectiveness and impact of FRC function on clients and the service delivery system; and (4) to increase public and professional awareness of "what works" in this school-based setting. A service history document, a client/participant survey, and a service provider survey for this study were developed. Forty-nine clients answered surveys while twenty-two service providers responded to questionnaires. Data analysis revealed five conditions: (1) cultural differences in initial client referrals to FRC services; (2) grade level variance in type and volume of need category services for at-risk clients; (3) satisfaction and usefulness indices of FRC efforts for recipients and providers; (4) documentation of systems change within the human service delivery systems; and (5) indicators of FRC impact on client behavior. The FRC has the potential to stimulate the development of a community infrastructure for the support of children and families. Five appendices feature copies of client service record, a survey, and demographic forms. Five tables present some of the statistical distributions. Contains 10 references.

Power, A. M. R., & Khmelkov, V. (1996). The effects of community service participation on high school students' social responsibility. Association paper American Sociological Association.
Investigates claims that participation in service projects leads to high school students' social responsibility at two levels: The immediate community & the broader geopolitical arena. In addition, the effects of school community & curriculum are examined using data from the 1988 National Education Longitudinal Study. Comparisons of means & multiple regressions support the hypothesis that service participation promotes social responsibility. Specifically, church & community group projects influence responsibility at the social structural level. Results also suggest that school communities indirectly affect social responsibility through the generation of social capital among students & their peers. The largest proportions of students reporting service participation come from Catholic & other private schools & from academic programs. Creating opportunities for service participation appears to be an effective way to teach students about the needs of society & about possibilities for social change. (Copyright 1996, Sociological Abstracts, Inc., all rights reserved.)

Quinn, T. R. (1994). Outside Invaders or Neighborly Advice? Community Development Practitioners at Work. Journal of the Community Development Society, 25(1), 123-129. Small, isolated, rural communities have some common characteristics that both help & hinder the efforts of community development practitioners. Here, personal experiences & observations of community development activities in such communities in the Midwest are shared. It is concluded that in such communities (1) new residents are instigators of change, (2) school sports programs keep communities from working together, & (3) sleeping dogs are not likely to move. It is proposed that the community development profession more closely follow the Native- American concept of "societal rights" than the Euroamerican concept of individual rights. Adapted from the source document. (Copyright 1996, Sociological Abstracts, Inc., all rights reserved.).

Reid, B. M. (1995). Rebellious parents: Contradictions in the corporatist structure for education reform in two rural communities. (Report No. 95S31711). American Sociological Association.
Two wealthy rural school districts in KS are studied as arenas where corporatist interests of the liberal education state confront the private interests of local groups. In these districts, the school is an important community institution that is a focal point for the contending interests of political, economic, & religious groups. Relying on concepts developed by Wexler (1987) & Apple (1990) from a critical theory perspective, the actions taken by local groups in response to state-imposed school finance policies & structured qualitative interviews with school officials, school board members, & parents are the primary source of data. A key finding is that while most local actors frame their responses to state policies in terms of the local control issue, their actions are also motivated by discourses of the political & religious Right. Offered in conclusion is a discussion of Wexler's theory on the reorganization of education in the U.S.

Rosenfeld, S. (1981). A Portrait of Rural America: Conditions Affecting Vocational Education Policy. Vocational Education Study Publication No. 6. (Report No. ERIC NO. ED 204-043)
The monograph is an attempt to describe conditions existing today in rural America that can affect the operation and impact of vocational education in rural areas and, thus, should exercise an influence on policy making. It identifies statistical patterns and characteristics common to rural areas, both within regions and those that cut across regions. It discusses: (1) characteristics of rural school districts that define and delimit their current delivery systems and their capacity for providing education, (2) demographic characteristics of the population to be served and the ability of rural communities to provide services; (3) rural poverty and deprivation that affect the need for services and the choice of criteria by which services are targeted; (4) geographic features that influence the delivery of services; and (5) labor market characteristics that affect the programs to be offered in the curriculum and the targeting of funds. The monograph also stresses that, while people in rural communities tend to be more alike than people in large cities, rural communities across the country tend to be more unlike each other than large cities across the country; therefore, local conditions need to be carefully considered in all State and Federal policies.

Salamon, S., & Davis-Brown, K. (1991). Social capital generation and community cohesion. Rural Sociological Society. (Association paper 91S24767)

Two small Illinois villages are compared to illustrate why, despite shared characteristics & similar challenges, neighboring midwestern communities diverge with development. A 5-month field study conducted in 1989 focused on describing intra- & intercommunity perceptions, village social structure, & household values via data garnered from interviews of a cross-section of comparable households in Bigville & Smallville (N = 44 & 41 respondents, respectively). Bigville (population 1,500) has been unable to maintain a core of businesses including a cafe or grocery store, while Smallville (population 700), has such a business core, supported by a highly integrated & cooperative community. Bigville is characterized by loose- knit social networks, apparent class distinctions, & weak commitment to local institutions. Smallville has tightly knit social networks, more egalitarian relations, & a strong commitment to local institutions as exemplified by a heavy tax burden to finance its tiny school district. A byproduct of Smallville's cohesion is the generation of social capital that families attribute to its stability. Each village represents an alternative local response to the decline of agriculture as the economic base of a rural community, & illustrates how social capital generation maintains a viable small-enterprise core. (Copyright 1991, Sociological Abstracts, Inc., all rights reserved.)

Sher, J. P. (1977). School-based community development corporations: A new strategy for education and development in rural America. J. P. Sher (Ed.), Education in Rural America: A Reassessment of Conventional Wisdom (pp. 291-346). Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc.

A proposal for school-based economic development corporations. Discusses what their purpose should be, how they should be formed between school and community members and gives guidelines for types of projects that should be avoided.

Smith, E. D., & DeYoung, A. J. (1992). Exploratory studies of occupational structure of the workforce and support of public education in rural Appalachia. (Report No. ERIC ED 392-586).

This paper focuses on the political economy of public education in depressed rural regions of the United States. The general hypothesis explored is that occupational composition of the community workforce and associated educational requirements for employment are significant elements of the sociopolitical environment for public education. Part I examines case study material on Pulaski County, Kentucky: employment patterns, public schools and related educational resources, adult population characteristics, financial support for schools, academic achievement, the dual system of an independent municipal district within the county district, potential impact of consolidation of the independent and county districts, direct support for public education by employers, local supply of technically proficient workers, and employment policies of local employers. The main finding is that major employers with needs for more highly educated workers tended to actively support improvements in the public schools. In Part II, 529 parents of high school seniors in 5 Kentucky and Virginia schools were surveyed concerning their educational attainment, occupational status, and participation in school support activities. Findings suggest that having a high proportion of well-educated workers in a community reinforces support for good quality schools, and that this support comes through the overt

direct participation of educated parents. Second, benefits of more and better education are mostly lost to a community when local employment opportunities for the educated are not available. Part III discusses implications for rural development policy.

Smith, K. B. (1980). Rural vocational education and economic development in the Western states. (Report No. ERIC ED 199-012).
Information analysis. Large numbers of rural youth in the Western United States continue to migrate to larger population centers to get good jobs or training for future careers in their home community. Many small rural high schools cannot offer vocational education options other than agriculture and homemaking because of insufficient students to qualify for teachers and equipment, problems with state funding mechanisms, and excessive time and paperwork required to obtain small amounts of federal funds. American Indian and Hispanic youth have special problems (language and cultural differences, lack of role models, high family poverty rates) which affect work patterns. Challenges for rural vocational education are to reconcile alternative cultural patterns with regular working patterns, and to equip individuals with broad-based skills so they can remain and contribute to their community's economic development; a possible solution is the community development corporation concept, using the rural school as its center.

Smithmier, A. (1994). Constructing a culture of community: The contributions of rural youth. Journal of Research in Rural Education, 10(2), 89-96.
This study illustrates a cooperative ethos that one midwestern rural school initiated and fostered in its student body. The study observes the students' strategies to compensate for the lack of direct parent and community involvement. The students construct -- and flourish in -- a school culture that values participation, cooperation, and high expectations.

Spears, J. D. et al. (1990). Accommodating change and diversity: Linking rural schools to communities. A report of the Ford Western Taskforce. (Report No. ERIC ED 328-392).
Rural America has been experiencing dramatic changes and is becoming an increasingly diverse society. To explore the process by which rural schools define and work towards change, case studies were conducted on two rural schools that have established unusually strong links with their communities. Information was collected by personal interviews with school personnel, students, and community members. The two case study sites, Belle Fourche, South Dakota, and York, Nebraska, developed programs to consistently work with the community. Both communities are struggling, however, facing increased social and economic needs at a time when fiscal resources and the population are decreasing. Belle Fourche uses the entrepreneurial curriculum as a vehicle to link the school to community development efforts; York has broadened a community education effort to coordinate social services for lifelong learning among the community's adults. In relation to the case studies, the document also reviews the decade-old themes that the rural school should be involved in local development. It focuses on (1) the reciprocal benefits for educational and economic development between the school and the community, (2) involvement of rural schools in community social services, and (3) rural schools' active role in lifelong learning for community adult members. A list of resource persons, a case study framework and questions, and a 45-item bibliography are included.

Stoops, J. W. (1994). The use of community-based support to effect curriculum renewal in rural settings. (Report No. ERIC ED 382-438).
This report examines the use of community-based support to facilitate curriculum renewal efforts in small rural school districts. Interviews with educators from five school districts in Alaska, Idaho, Montana, Oregon, and Washington describe three approaches to curriculum renewal: community-initiated approaches, state-directed reform efforts, and school-initiated efforts. Successful program implementation depended on community resources such as specialized knowledge, technical assistance, and fiscal resources. Other important elements were effective communication between the school district and community members, adequate funding, community members holding leadership roles, and school district support of community efforts. School districts reported that projects developed a strong sense of local ownership and input, created classroom materials and approaches that had high utility, kept the district current with the latest in curriculum and instructional development, and utilized resources to assist school districts in meeting new state curriculum standards. Other benefits of the community-based approach included improved collaboration and understanding, increased community unity, and improved student-parent relationships. This report includes steps for implementing a community-based curriculum renewal program and work sheets for program implementation.

Stromberg, E. T. (1938). The influence of the central rural school on community organization. Vol. Bulletin 699). Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station. Abstract unavailable.

Theobald, P. The new vocationalism in rural locales. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Studies Association, Montreal, Quebec, Canada, Nov. 1996.
This paper critiques current "school-to-work" practices in rural schools. A look at the rural context reveals that rural workers are more likely to be unemployed and are paid less than workers elsewhere, resulting in high rural poverty. In addition, many kinds of rural decline (in services, transportation, job availability) are tied to larger trends in the increasingly globalized political economy. The trend is for work to leave rural communities, and consequently students taking part in a school-to-work program must leave as well. It is not uncommon for such a program to consist of bus trips to regional centers where rural people commute or migrate to work. Students learn than if they want to work, they must abandon their communities. School-to-work in rural locales feeds several dangerous, though widespread, cultural assumptions. First, that children should spend 12 years of formal schooling with their eyes continually focused on the future (although we have no idea what work will look like in the future, nor how much will be available), and second, that youth should consider their own self-interest before their community's welfare. An honest approach to school-to-work would allow students to explore public policy assumptions and results--to see connections between the work available in their communities and policy decisions made elsewhere. This approach would empower students to make decisions that affect the quality of life in their own place. It would be civic education developed through the application of traditional school subjects to the realities at hand. (SV)

Theobald, P. (1997). Teaching the Commons: Place, Pride, and the Renewal of Community. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.
This book addresses the role that rural schools can play in promoting community and developing a community-oriented world view. Specifically, this book suggests that rural schools, through concerted pedagogical and curricular attention to the dynamics of their particular place, can generate community allegiance and nurture the fulfillment that one finds in meeting community obligations. Part 1, "The Creation of Community from a Historical Perspective," examines the ideas upon which community was built in the past. The chapters in this section propose that intradependence, cyclic time, and the avoidance of risk--three agrarian communal characteristics- -were once a vital part of the health and well-being of communities; that these characteristics, though in severe decline, still linger in rural portions of the United States; and that the decline of these characteristics has coincided with the rise of an industrial world view encompassing notions about the self, the economy, the proper role of government, and the role of education as training for successful competition in a global economy. Part 2, "Public Policy and the Subordination of Community," chronicles historical developments that undermined community elements and bolstered cultural infatuation with the individual. In this section of the book, rural history represents an American tragedy perpetrated by urban commercialist interests under the guise of "progress," resulting in the decline of rural communities. Part 3, "Education and the Renewal of Community," addresses the simultaneous renewal of rural schools and communities based on rebuilding rural communities on an educational rather than an economic foundation. The chapters in this section provide examples of ways that this renewal process can be initiated in both the community and schools. Contains references in chapter notes and an index.

Theobald, P., & Nachtigal, P. M. (1995). Culture, community, and the promise of rural education. Phi Delta Kappan, 77(2), 132-135.
Redesigning education to recreate an ecologically sustainable community is a critical societal need. Educators should focus not on technological fixes, but on formulating new cultural assumptions. The authors argue that rural schools must build on the strengths of their own place instead of imitating urban schools. The result will be a healthy community and school. The article reviews attitudes that have forced rural schools to conform to urban standards as well as more recent efforts to bring rural communities and schools back together.

Tompkins, R. B. (1977). Coping with Sparsity: A Review of Rural School Finance. In J. P. Sher Education in Rural America: A Reassessment of Conventional Wisdom (pp. 125-155). Boulder, CO: Westview Press, Inc.
Historical review of changes in rural school finance strategies. Argues that state funding is not clearly associated with a loss of local control over schools, evidenced by state regulation of schools without provision of funding. Reviews efforts in different states to equalize funding strategies based on property taxes and suggests that states should assume the burden for certain costs such as transportation and construction. Argues that citizens need to be more involved in school decisions with professional educators and that state funding strategies would be built-in with broad guidelines that can accomodate local choices.

Van Hook, M. P. (1993). Educational aspirations of rural youths and community economic development: Implications for school social workers. Social Work in Education, 15(4), 215-224.

Argues that education is important to rural community development in that good schools and an educated work force are needed to attract high-paying jobs. Presents data from the Monitoring the Future Project, 1977-1989, a survey with a representative sample size of 16,000 rural and urban high school seniors. Questions included educational aspirations and intentions to stay in the community. Results: Over the study period, rural students planned to attend either 2-year or 4-year college or vocational school 58.2% compared to 69.8% in small towns (less than 50,000 population) and 77.3% in larger cities (50,000 and greater population). Educational aspirations are positively linked with parental education levels, expectations and academic self-concept; rural students were also had lower academic self-concept than did urban students. Rural students' plans for additional education were not associated with plans to leave the community. Implications for interventions by school social workers are discussed.

Webb, C. D., Shumway, L. K., & Shute, R. W. (1996). Local schools of thought: A search for purpose in rural education. (Report No. ERIC ED 391-635).

The question that ought to be at the heart of the school reform debate is: Why do we have schools? An answer to this question will drive the sorts of "improvements" that schools attempt. This book proposes that schools exist to help young persons create meaning and discover their own being through development of the mind. The mind is the starting point for personal progress, and its development allows for success in all facets of life. Asserting the strong claim of the mind on the rural school curriculum disavows a popular notion about school purpose--that it ought to be economically centered. Focusing on human development also challenges the currently accepted "technocratic" approach to schooling, which relies on ready-made "one best" solutions devised by experts, manipulative methods, and mechanical techniques. In contrast, a "thoughtful" approach to education aims to create meaning by going beyond the transmission of information. Thoughtful learning involves consideration both for ideas and for other people. Students who engage in thoughtful learning acquire a disposition to be mindful--to weigh evidence, make connections among ideas, understand perspective, find alternatives, and judge value. Ultimately, thoughtful learning results from thoughtful settings brought about by thoughtful teachers and administrators. Although the prospects for widespread institutional change are slim, individual teachers and administrators have the potential to commit themselves to meaning and thoughtfulness and to transform their own school settings. Annotated bibliography of 12 resources on predicative teaching and learning, contains 79 references.

West, D. A., & Price, D. Z. (1979). Employment opportunities, job satisfaction, and migration among young adults from nonmetropolitan Washington. (Report No. ERIC ED 189-301). College of Agriculture Research Center: Washington State University, Bulletin 873.

A study evaluated career attainment and job satisfaction of young adults from nonmetropolitan Washington and identified factors influencing them. Results were based on data colected in a 1973 mail survey of members of high school classes graduating in 1965 and 1966. Career attainment was measured by occupation, earnings, place of work,

and education beyond high school. The survey showed male annual earnings peaking at $7,000 - $9,999, while most females earned $5,000 - $9,999. The most common place of work for men was large towns; one-third of the employed women worked in large cities. About two-thirds had some college training. In general, their career attainment was similar to that for the United States population aged 25-34 in 1970. A 1975 follow-up survey of the migration proportion of the 1973 sample studied expectations and perceived benefits and costs of moving. The majority migrated to get more education. A more enjoyable lifestyle was identified as the greatest benefit, leaving relatives and friends as the greatest single cost. The income, educational, and occupational characteristics of parents were also generally directly associated with the educations and occupations of the respondents.

Young, K. M. (1980). An emerging model in rural America. Community based education, Paper Number Four. (Report No. ERIC ED 200-382). Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D C. Teacher Corps.

A community-based education program enables rural communities to meet needs and solve problems by utilizing the total community environment and its human resources. Components of this program are: (1) expanded use of school facilities; (2) lifelong learning and enrichment programs; (3) interagency coordination, cooperation, and collaboration; (4) citizen involvement and participation; (5) utilization of community in K-12 programs; and (6) community organization and development. Many communities begin a community-based education program by using school buildings as community-centered schools for educational, social, and community events. The school, community groups, and individuals share responsibility for development of lifelong learning and enrichment programs. Coordinated activities of service and governmental agencies and social, youth, and civic groups can produce a total program to meet community needs. Citizens participate through a community council which takes an active role in developing and implementing all aspects of the community-based education program. Through integration of solutions to home, school, and community needs, the program strengthens and reinforces learning experiences and provides a means of reinforcing values, beliefs, and attitudes. Finally, community members can exert their collective power to bring about needed changes. A general comparison of school-based and community-based educational philosophies is included.